

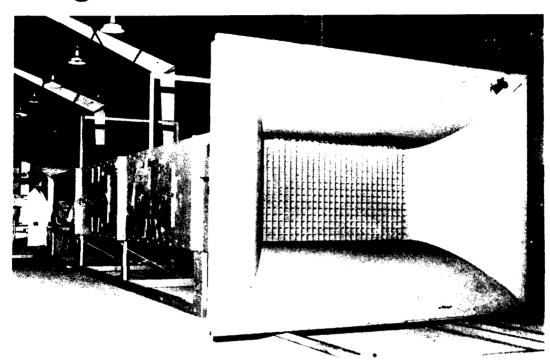
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# **TECHNICAL REPORT R-912**

Field and Wind Tunnel Testing on Natural Ventilation Cooling Effects on Three Navy Buildings

AD-A154 909



By Sophia K. Ashley

December 1984

Sponsored by Chief of Naval Material Washington, D.C. 20360



Naval Civil Engineering Laboratory Port Hueneme, California 93043



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Natural ventilation can reduce cooling loads and increase human comfort in buildings in hot, humid climates. Airflow rates are determined by wind pressure on the faces of buildings and the size of open areas. Wind pressures are calculated from the windspeed and the pressure coefficient. This report presents measurements of pressure coefficients of three buildings located at MCAS, Kaneohe Bay, Oahu, Hawaii, wind tunnel model tests, and comparisons of field tests, model tests, and existing data. This report establishes the validity of the NCEL computer model as an engineering tool to predict comfort levels within a building cooled by natural ventilation, and initiates a database of wind pressure coefficients for a variety of building forms.

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# CONTENTS

	Page
INTRODUCTION	1
FULL-SCALE MEASUREMENTS	2
Experimental Technique	2 5
Wind Measurements	6
Calibration	7 8
Building Descriptions	11 25
NCEL WIND TUNNEL TESTS	26
Wind Tunnel Configuration	26
Wind Tunnel Test Models	49 55
Wind Tunnel Test Results	56
COMPARISON OF WIND TUNNEL TESTS, FIELD TESTS, AND EXISTING DATA	66
COMPARISON OF THE NCEL COMPUTER MODEL AND FIELD TESTS RESULTS	92
Discussion	93 101
RECOMMENDATIONS	103
REFERENCES	103
LIST OF SYMBOLS	107
APPENDIXES	
A - Definition of Effective Temperature	A-1 B-1
and Commercial Buildings (Ref 17 and 18)	C-1

#### INTRODUCTION

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While Navy shore facilities have been able to reduce overall energy consumption in the past few years, electrical consumption and cost have increased.

In hot, humid climates the energy required to maintain an acceptably cool indoor environment can be a building's single largest energy cost. In many such climates cooling loads could be reduced or eliminated by using natural ventilation instead of mechanical cooling. Natural ventilation can replace mechanical cooling through two mechanisms: (1) air-flow rates through the building sweep away internal heat and moisture, bringing the indoor temperature and humidity closer to their outdoor counterparts, and (2) high indoor airspeed makes occupants feel cooler and more comfortable than they would in still air. Thus, there is a large potential for saving energy in climates where natural ventilation can be used.

If the concepts of natural ventilation are to be useful to the designer and/or architect, there must be some basic design tools that allow estimating the effects of natural ventilation. The development of these design tools requires field and laboratory measurements, as well as physical modeling. The most accurate method of measuring natural ventilation is to monitor an existing building; however, full-scale measurements can be both time consuming and costly. Accordingly, most wind-related design measurements are made on scale models in wind tun-As in any other kind of modeling, there is a need to make sure that the model behaves in the same manner as the real structure. Once the wind tunnel data has been confirmed, it can be used to predict the airflow and velocity distribution within the occupied space. This, in turn, leads to the calculation of the interior effective temperatures which is an indication of the thermal acceptability of the indoor environment and the usefulness of natural ventilation for that particular case.

This report presents the development and validation of a particular design tool used to estimate the effectiveness of natural ventilation in buildings in hot, humid climates. Full-scale tests were done at the Marine Corps Air Sation (MCAS) Kaneohe Bay, on the island of Oahu, Hawaii. This report compares wind tunnel data and full-scale field measurements for natural ventilation; establishes the validity of the NCEL computer model that can be used as an engineering tool to predict airflow rates and comfort levels within a building cooled by natural ventilation (by comparing it to full-scale measurements); and initiates a data base of wind pressure coefficients for a variety of building forms (to be used as input to NCEL's computer program).

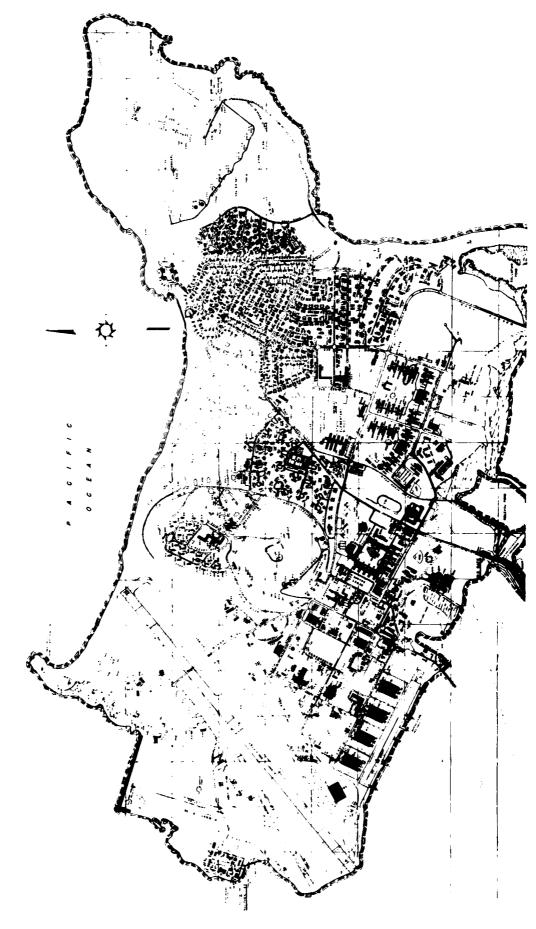
#### **FULL-SCALE MEASUREMENTS**

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# Experimental Technique

The MCAS is an exposed site on the windward side of the island as seen in Figure 1; prevailing ENE winds are steady in the range of 3-6 m/s (6.7-13.4 mph) and usually within a narrow (20-degree) direction cone. During the period of this study, the outdoor temperature averaged approximately  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$   $(77^{\circ}\text{F})$  with the extreme low about  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$   $(68^{\circ}\text{F})$  and the extreme high about  $30^{\circ}\text{C}$   $(86^{\circ}\text{F})$ .

Three buildings were chosen (Figures 2, 3, and 4) for testing at MCAS during July 1982. The three buildings were a two-story visiting enlisted quarters (VEQ), a single-story duplex, and a two-story fourplex -- all with good wind exposure. Each building was tested 3 to 5 days. The tests included determining the exterior surface pressures on at least three sections of the windward and leeward faces and one section of the side face; pressures of accessible interior spaces were also measured. Windspeed and direction were measured with an on-site weather tower and the results were compared with those from the MCAS weather station. Interior and exterior dry bulb temperatures and relative humidities were also measured. From these measurements an estimate (or measurement) of the internal air velocity and effective temperatures was calculated and used as the comfort criterion.



Marine Corps Air Station, Kaneohe Bay, Island of Oahu, Hawaii. Figure 1.



Figure 2. Test Building No. 1 - two-story VEQ.



Figure 3. Test Building No. 2 - single-story duplex.



Figure 4. Test Building No. 3 - two-story fourplex.

Frequent, time-series measurements of all relevant parameters were recorded in order for full-scale measurements to be useful for theoretical or wind-tunnel modeling. A microprocessor-based data acquistion system (Ref 1) was programmed to take frequent measurements and record half-hour averages and standard deviations. Data were stored on floppy disks for further analysis. This system has been used repeatedly in the mobile infiltration test unit (Ref 2), from which a great deal of information on infiltration, weather, and pressure correlations can be found (Ref 3 and 4). Individual components, as used in this project, are described in the following sections.

#### **Pressure Measurements**

The pressure measurements were done with six Validyne DP103 pressure transducers having a range of  $\pm 70$  (0.28 inch of water) Pa full scale. The transducers were electronically connected to a demodulator box in the computer rack and the output voltages went directly to the

analog to a digital converter in the computer. The reference side of each Validyne measured the static pressure at the 6 meter height on the on-site weather tower.

The static pressure in the wind was measured using a static pressure probe that was designed, built, and calibrated by Dr. David Wilson from the Mechanical Engineering Department of the University of Alberta in Edmonton, Canada. The probe is relatively insensitive to horizontal wind direction, having a pressure coefficient of 0.07, and is insensitive to the vertical component of the wind within 10 degrees of the horizontal. It was possible to measure the external (and internal) building pressure coefficients as well as the outside/inside pressure differences with the static pressure probe.

The signal end of each pressure transducer was connected to a manifold of up to eight different pressure taps, which were located up to 300 feet from the transducers. Each pressure tap was a set of cross-shaped pipes that were tapped to the outside (or inside) of the building and connected to the manifold through a length of flexible tubing. (This tubing was covered in aluminum foil wherever it might be exposed to direct sunlight.) The tubing stopped at a solenoid valve connected to the manifold for each pressure transducer. The tap to be measured was selected by computer control of the solenoids; each connected tap was sampled repeatedly during each half-hour cycle and the results were stored individually. All six transducers and attendant solenoid valves were stored in one rack for easy transport and set-up.

Of the six transducers, three were used outside (levels 1, 2, 3) and three were used inside (levels 4, 5, 6).

#### Wind Measurements

Since pressure coefficients are the ratio of the absolute surface pressures to dynamic wind pressures, measuring the wind is very important. Windspeeds and directions at the sites were measured in two ways: (1) an on-site weather tower with weather heads at 10 meters (32.8 feet) and 7 meters (23 feet), and (2) weather information provided by the MCAS weather station. Each weather head, made by Weather Measure, measured

windspeed and direction relative to the building face. A weather tower was erected at each building and was aligned with the building face. The three test buildings were chosen because each front face had maximum exposure to the wind. Accordingly, the direction perpendicular to the front face of each building was designated as north and all directions are relative to that; the MCAS wind direction is relative to true north.

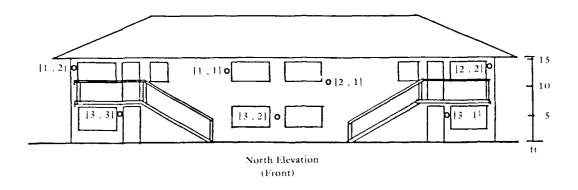
The static pressure probe was mounted at the 6 meter (19.7 feet) level to measure the static pressure in the wind. In addition to outdoor wind velocity, internal airspeed was measured for most of the time. An omni-directional velocity probe was used to measure the airspeed; its range is 0.05 to 2 m/s (9.84-393.7 fpm).

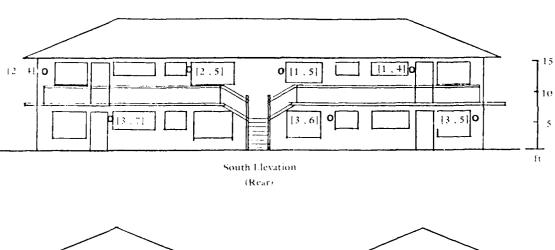
## Psychrometric Measurements

Temperatures and humidities were measured for both the internal and external environment. Dry bulb temperatures were measured on the weather tower at 6.5 meters (21.3 feet), and air temperatures and relative humidity were measured at 2 meters (6.6 feet). Air temperatures and relative humidity were also measured at several locations throughout the interior of the test space. Daily measurements were made using a sling psychometer to measure dry bulb and wet bulb temperatures at all humidity measurement locations; these daily measurements served as a calibration for the humidity sensors. For comparison, dry bulb temperatures, dew point, and barometric pressures were recorded from the MCAS weather station.

# Calibration

A full calibration of all sensors (i.e., pressure transducers, temperature probes, humidity sensors, and the computer) was done both before and after the test period. Quoted results were corrected for any change in the equipment calibration. The accuracies of the various sensors (calculated from the calibrations) are listed in Table 1. No measurement accuracies were supplied with the data from MCAS weather station.





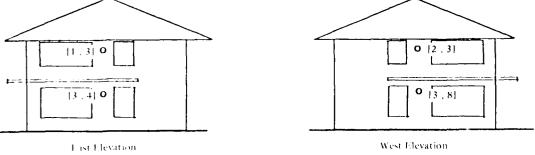


Figure 10. Elevation plan of Building No. 3 with the pressure taps locations shown.

Table 5. Data Log for Building No. 2

Date	Time	Windows	Comments
8 July	1930		Set up data taking systems
9 July	1130	Opened Property of the Control of th	Start data taking
9 July	1930	Clos∘d	All pressures operational
10 July	1700	Closed	Air conditioner on
11 July	0830	Opened	Air conditioner off
11 July	2000	Closed	
12 July	1100	Half opened	
12 July	1930	Closed	
13 July	0900	Half opened	***
13 July	1800	Closed	
14 July	0830		End data taking

North is 68° east of true north.

Building No. 3 - Two-Story Fourplex. Building No. 3 was a two-story residence consisting of four units. Figures 10 and 11 are sketches of this building and include dimensions and the location of pressure taps over the surface of the building. The position of the computer and indoor climate measuring devices are also indicated. Table 6 shows the positions of the pressure taps and their numbers. The computer equipment was setup in the living room area of the upstairs east apartment. Initially, the internal temperature and airspeed were measured in the lanai (screen porch), both of which open into the living space. Each apartment had a lanai that had screen covers which should have been operable, but were not. Hence, during the measurements the screens on the lanais were loosely covered with cloth that served to keep the rain out, but allowed a fair amount of airflow through them.

<u>Window schedule</u>. Since the lower units were occupied by families, the status of these windows was not controlled and the internal pressure of these units was not measured. The windows configurations of the two test units are listed in Table 6.

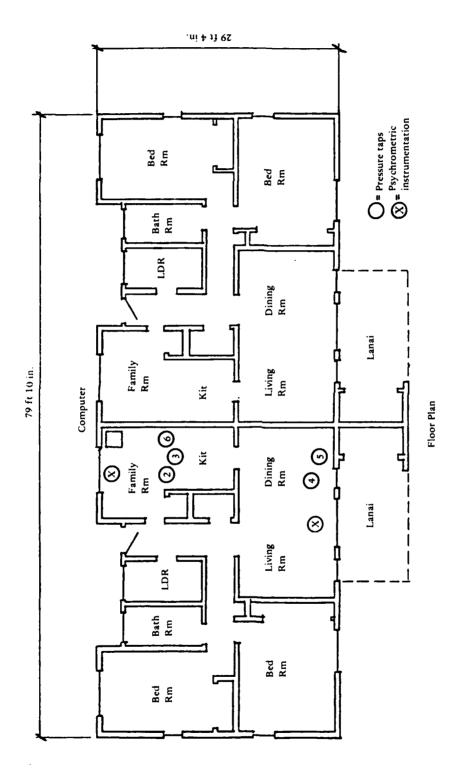
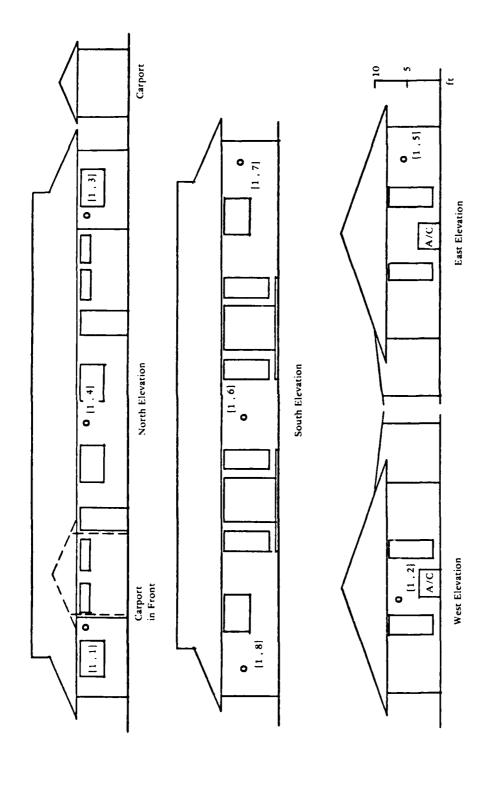


Figure 9. Floor plan of Building No. 2.



Elevation plan of Building No. 2 with the pressure taps locations shown. Figure 8.

computer equipment was setup in the kitchen/dining area and the internal pressure, temperature, and internal air velocity were measured in the central living room area.

Table 4. Location of Pressure Taps and Window Configuration of Building No. 2

Tap No.	Pressure Taps Location	Window Area, Full open (m²)
1,1	North face east side	1.27
1,2	West face	1.51
1,3	North face west side	1.27
1,4	North face center	0.91
1,5	East face	1.51
1,6	South face center	1.05
1,7	South face east side	1.11
1,8	South face west side	1.11

Transducer 1: Exterior<sup>a</sup>

Transducer 2: Computer room (kitchen)
Transducer 2: Computer room (kitchen)

Transducer 3: Computer room (kitchen)
Transducer 4: Central space (living room)
Transducer 5: Central space (living room)

Transducer 6: Computer room (kitchen)

<u>Window schedule</u>. Although the unit adjacent to the test unit was occupied by a family, and the status of the windows was not controlled; it was assumed that the windows were closed since the air conditioner was in operation most of the time. The internal pressure of that unit, furthermore, was not measured. The window configuration of the test unit is shown in the Table 5.

The air conditioner was operated in the test apartment from 1700 on 10 July to 0830 on 11 July and its operation effected both the internal and external pressures as measured by the nearby pressure tap.

Occupancy schedule. The test apartment was unoccupied except when the window configuration was changed.

 $a_{X} = 15\%$  for open windows; X = 1% for closed windows.

<u>Window schedule</u>. Because of irregular occupancy on the first floor, the windows on that floor were opened and closed at irregular intervals, but were always closed at night for security reasons. The windows on the second floor were controlled and set according to the schedule presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Data Log for Building No. 1

Date	Time	Windows	Comments
1 July 4 July 5 July 6 July 7 July 8 July	1530 1700 0100 0930 1030 0900	Closed Closed Opened Half opened	Set up data taking systems All systems functioning Weather tower down (approx.) Began using single weather head End data taking

North is 19° east of true north.

Occupancy schedule. The building was, in general, unoccupied from 1700 on 3 July on. There were a few officers and instructors, in addition to the testing team going in and out of the building at unscheduled times. For the most part these unscheduled entrances were in the eastern part of both floors. The testing team's occupancy schedule was:

Tie	Date		
1300 -	- 1700	4 July	
0900 -	- 1030	6 July	
1000 -	- 1030	7 July	

Building No. 2 - Single-Story Duplex. Building No. 2 was a single-story residence consisting of two mirror image units. Figures 8 and 9 are sketches of this building and include dimensions and the location of pressure taps over the surface of the building. The position of the computer and indoor climate measuring devices are also indicated. Table 4 shows the positions of the pressure taps and their numbers. The

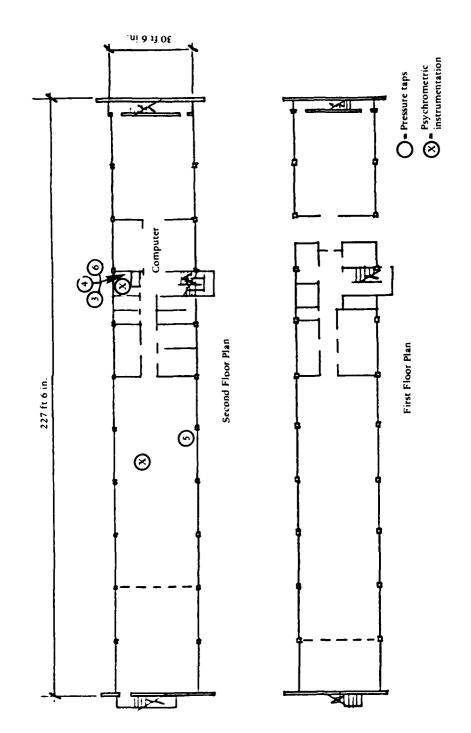
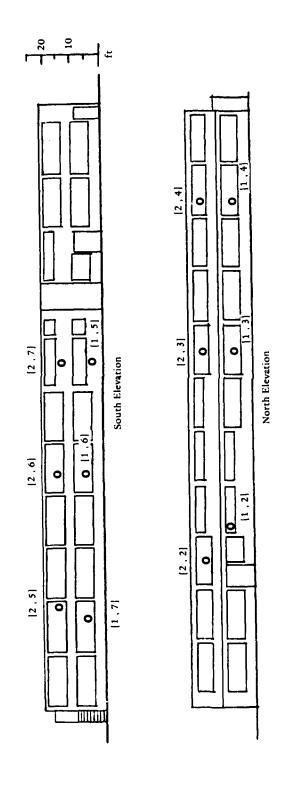


Figure 7. Floor plan of Building No. 1.



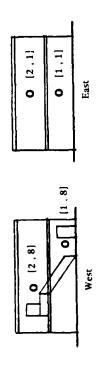


Figure 6. Elevation plan of Building No. 1 with the pressure taps locations shown.

Building No. 1. Building No. 1 was a large two-story building used for the training and billeting of enlisted men. Figures 6 and 7 are sketches of this building and include dimensions and the location of pressure taps on the surface of the building. The position of the computer and indoor climate measuring devices are also indicated. Table 2 shows the positions of the pressure taps and their numbers. The equipment was setup on the second floor. Since there was no access to the inside of the first floor space, all differential pressures are relative to the second floor. Pressure transducers 3, 4, and 6 measured the pressure in the computer room, while transducer 5 measured the central area of the second floor.

Table 2. Location of Pressure Taps and Window Configuration of Building No. 1

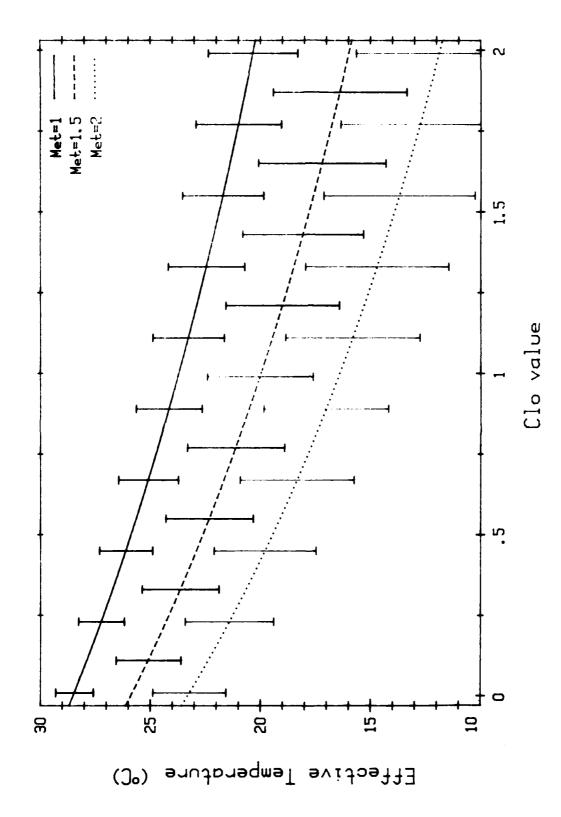
Tap No.	Pressure Taps Location	Window Area, Full open (m²)
1,1	East face	a
1,2	North face east side	
1,3	North face center	
1,4	North face west side	
1,5	South face west side	
1,6	South face center	
1,7	South face east side	
1,8	West face	
2,1	East face	0
2,2	North face east side	1.02
2,3	North face center	3.74
2,4	North face west side	4.08
2,5	South face west side	4.08
2,6	South face center	3.40
2,7	South face east side	1.36
2,8	West face	0

First Floor Second Floor<sup>b</sup> Transducer 1: Transducer 2: Transducer 3: Computer room Transducer 4: Computer room

Transducer 5: Second floor central area

Transducer 6: Computer room

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Windows were opened and closed on an irregular basis but were closed at night for security reasons. X = 9.0% with open windows; X = 0.1% with closed windows.



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Figure 5. Acceptable values of effective temperatures (comfort temperatures).

The definition of the coefficients A, B, C, and D are given in Appendix A. The coefficients are functions of airspeed and the personal variables.

The effective temperature depends on the four environmental parameters: air temperature, mean radiant temperature, dew point, and windspeed, as well as the two personal parameters: clothing insulation levels and metabolic rate. All of the effective temperatures calculated from the field data use this definition for effective temperature.

The effective temperature alone does not indicate whether most individuals will find the conditions comfortable. In order to decide this, the comfort temperature range must be defined. Figure 5 displays the acceptable values of the effective temperature (i.e., the comfort temperature) for different combinations of personal variables. The formula for this comfort temperature as well as the acceptable range of effective temperature is also given in Appendix A.

Dry bulb and globe (mean radiant) temperatures were not always simultaneously measured. Because the inside-outside temperature difference was small and there was little direct sun on the wall surfaces, it was assumed that the internal mean radiant temperature was equal to the air temperature and, therefore, the dry bulb and globe temperatures are interchangeable. Dew point was not directly measured, but the relative humidity was measured. The standard psychrometric formulas (Ref 13) were used to convert the humidity from one form to another (e.g., dew point, relative humidity, wet bulb, etc.).

## **Building Descriptions**

The recorded data contain all the information measured and calculated as described in the previous section. However, in order to use it for modeling purposes, a more detailed description of each building, including pressure tap configuration, open (window) area, occupancy schedule, etc., is needed. The following sections contain this information as well as any unusual happenings during the experimental runs.

Ideally, the infiltration,  $Q_+$ , and the exfiltration,  $Q_-$ , should balance; but, because of experimental uncertainties in the pressure measurements they are unlikely to. Previous studies (Ref 9) have shown that a small error in the internal pressure measurement can cause a large disagreement between infiltration and exfiltration. The best solution is to adjust the internal pressure (within experimental uncertainty) to minimize the difference between the two flows. Lacking this, a simple average of the two (unbalanced) flow rates is used. The LBL model does not use measured pressures or pressure coefficients but rather it internally estimates the pressures from the windspeed and terrain around the structure. Both estimates of the filtrations are presented in the data.

In order to estimate the usefulness of increasing interior airspeed and total ventilation, a simplified version of a comfort model (Ref 11 and 12) as the criterion for acceptable comfort was used. The concept of <u>effective temperature</u> was used to indicate the comfort level of the occupants. The effective temperature corrects the air temperature for the effects of radiant temperature, humidity, and air movement; as such it reflects any change in environmental conditions, including the increase in air exchange that natural ventilation causes.

In order to define a single variable,  $T_{\rm eff}$ , as the comfort variable, a set of standard conditions was defined for the other environmental parameters. Under these standard conditions the effective temperature became equal to the air temperature. The standard conditions were low airspeed, air, and mean radiant temperature equal to the effective temperature and a standardized dew point.

The effective temperature is defined as follows:

$$T_{eff} = A + B T_r + C T_a + D T_d^2$$
 (5)

where:  $T_{eff}$  = effective temperature, °C

 $T_r$  = mean radiant temperature, °C

T<sub>a</sub> = ambient air temperature, <sup>o</sup>C

T<sub>d</sub> = dew point temperature, °C

cross-section to determine the mean windspeed; this method is difficult because it is hard to determine the appropriate cross-section. An experimental relationship given in Reference 7 that relates the average indoor airspeed to the outdoor windspeed as a function of open area (the relationship assumes approximately equal windward and leeward openings with a square floor plan and no partitions) was used for the field test data analysis:

$$\bar{v} = 0.45 \left[ 1 - e^{-3.84X} \right] U_R$$
 (2)

where:  $\bar{v}$  = mean internal airspeed, m/s

X = ratio of window area to wall area

 $U_D$  = windspeed at site at roof level, m/s

The airflow rate was estimated in two ways: (1) combining open areas and pressure coefficients with the windspeed, and (2) using the LBL infiltration model (Ref 6, 7 and 8). To use the open areas and pressure coefficients method, the orifice velocity of each opening was multiplied by its effective leakage area and the infiltration and exfiltration were totaled separately.

$$Q_{+} = \sum_{+}^{-} A_{+} v_{+}$$
 (3)

$$Q_{-} = \sum_{-}^{\infty} A_{-} v_{-} \tag{4}$$

where:  $Q_{+/-}$  = infiltration/exfiltration, m<sup>3</sup>/s

 $A_{+/-}$  = effective leakage area,  $m^2$ 

 $v_{+/-}$  = positive/negative orifice velocity, m/s

To estimate the leakage of the buildings with closed windows, a specific leakage of 4 cm $^2$ /m $^2$  (i.e., 4 cm $^2$  for every m $^2$  of floor area) was used. To estimate the leakage with open windows, the open area was used and multiplied by an appropriate discharge coefficient (0.6 in most cases) (Ref 9 and 10).

Table 1. Sensor Accuracy

Sensor	Туре	Units	Accuracy	
Pressure	Differential	Pascals	0.5	
Wind direction	Vane	deg LBL	1.0	
Windspeed	Anemometer	m/s	0.1	
Int. airspeed	Hot wire	m/s	0.02	
Temperature	Globe	°C	0.5	
Humidity	Relative	%	12.0	

#### Data Reduction

Many of the quantities of interest for natural ventilation are derived ones: infiltration, dew point, mean internal airspeed, effective temperature, and comfort levels; and all of them can be derived or estimated from the measured data. There are several methods of estimating the mean interior airspeed. The most straightforward method is to use the spot measurement made by the airspeed probe; unfortunately there is no way of knowing whether a single probe is representative of the average windspeed in the space. Making the assumption that the occupants are seated directly in front of an open window, the orifice velocity of the window is used as the required airspeed (Ref 5 and 6).

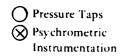
$$v_{o} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\rho} \Delta P} \tag{1}$$

where:  $v_0 = \text{orifice velocity, m/s}$ 

 $\rho$  = density of air, 1.2 kg/m<sup>3</sup>

 $\Delta P$  = pressure drop across the window, Pa

But, this is not useful for finding the average effective temperature in the entire space. Another method that is used in the NCEL computer model is to estimate the airflow rate and divide it by an appropriate



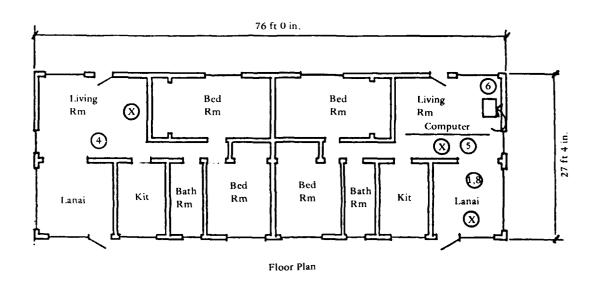


Figure 11. Upstairs floor plan of Building No. 3.

Table 6. Location of Pressure Taps and Window Configuration of Building No. 3

Tap No.	Pressure Taps Location	Window Area, Full open (m²)
1,1	North face west side	1.95
1,2	North face east side	1.21
1,3	East face	1.43/0.56 <sup>b</sup>
1,4	South face east side <sup>a</sup>	1.95/1.34
1,5	South face west side	1.38
1,8	Lanai	0.02
2,1	North face east side	1.95
2,2	North face west side	1.21
2,3	West face	1.43
2,4	South face west side <sup>a</sup>	1.95
2,5	South face east side	1.38
3,1	North face west side	
3,2	North face center	
3,3	North face east side	
3,4	East face	
3,5	South face east side	
3,6	South face center	
3,7	South face west side	
3,8	West face	

East Apt<sup>C</sup> Upstairs Exterior Transducer 1: West Apt<sup>C</sup> Upstairs Exterior Transducer 2:

**Downstairs Exterior** Transducer 3: Transducer 4: Internal Upstairs East

Apartment (central area) Internal Upstairs West

Transducer 5: Apartment (central area) Transducer 6: Internal Upstairs West

Apartment (near equipment)

Sometime during the night of 15 July to 16 July taps 1,1; 1,4; 1,5;2,1; and 3,1 fell during a rain storm. The taps were repaired and replaced on 16 July and did not fall again. On 18 July the lanai in the

The lanai windows had a discharge coefficient of 0.25.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>The numbers after the "/" refer to the lanai isolated configuration.

 $<sup>^{</sup>C}X = 9.9\%/16.2\%$  with open windows; X = 3.7%/.05% with closed windows.

east upstairs apartment (the one with the computer) was isolated from the living space by closing all connecting doors. At that time the internal temperature and windspeed sensors were moved from the lanai to the central living space, and an additional pressure tap 1,8 was installed in the lanai to record the internal pressure.

Occupancy schedule. Since the apartments were occupied, the downstairs apartments were not monitored for occupancy or window configuration. The upstairs west apartment was occupied only at the times indicated in Table 7. In addition to those times, the occupants of the upstairs east apartment were in the building as follows:

Ti	me	<u>Date</u>
2100	- 2130	15 July
2000	- 2030	17 July
0700	- 0715	19 July
1830	- 1900	20 July
2330	- 2400	20 July
0001	- 0640	21 July

Table 7. Data Log for Building No. 3

Date	Time	East Windows	West Windows	Comments
15 July	1300			Set up data taking systems
15 July	1700	Closed	Closed	Started taking data
16 July	0930	Opened	Opened	Repaired fallen taps
16 July	2000	Closed	Closed	
18 July	0800	Half opened	Half opened	Isolated east lanai
18 July	2000	Closed	Closed	
19 July	1000	Opened	Half	
19 July	2130	Closed	Closed	
20 July	0800	Closed	Opened	
21 July	0900			End data taking

North is 57° east of true north.

### Field Test Results

The data from these tests were recorded on over 700 pages. Each page represents a particular half-hour set of data from one of the three buildings. On each page are the averages and standard deviations (indicated by parentheses) of the following measured quantities: differential pressure and pressure coefficient for each pressure tap; mean radiant temperature and relative humidity for the active temperature/humidity probes; windspeed and direction from the on-site weather tower, as well as the MCAS weather station; and internal air velocity as measured by the omni-directional probe. Several quantities derived from measured data were also displayed for each half-hour: dew point, estimated internal airspeed, effective temperature, wind-driven exfiltration and infiltration, and total infiltration as estimated from the LBL model.

At scattered times throughout the data some of the sensors (temperature, humidity, windspeed, or pressure) were not working or not working correctly. This was handled in one of two ways: (1) if only a few sensors gave bad readings, the data was included, but the bad measurements were marked; (2) if a large portion of the data (e.g., all of the pressures or all of the weather, etc.) was bad, the data were eliminated. The first method was used on the temperature and humidity sensors that were outside. On occasion rain would get into the sensors and caused them to give faulty readings until they dried out. Faulty temperature and humidity readings are indicated by a negative value. Faulty (off-scale) pressure measurements are indicated by an asterisk, "\*", next to the entry. Some readings were suspicious but possible readings; these were indicated by negative standard deviations. Due to start-up delays and the weather tower crash, most of the data prior to 5 July were bad and were eliminated.

Figures 12, 13 and 14 are samples of the output data, one half-hour of data for Buildings 1, 2, and 3, respectively. The data are available on magnetic tape and include data taken on the following dates:

Building No.	<u>Dates</u>		
1	5 - 8 July		
2	9 - 14 July		
3	15 - 21 July		

The exact environmental conditions during the test, the calculated surface pressure coefficients, the estimated airflow rates, and the estimated and measured interior airspeed were plotted for all the buildings. Figure 15a, b, and c show the windspeeds and directions; Figures 16a, b, c, and d show the indoor and outdoor air temperatures; Figures 17a, b, and c show the indoor and outdoor dew points; Figures 18a, b, c, and d show the estimated airflow rates; Figures 19a and b, show the measured and estimated interior airspeeds; and Figures 20a, b, and c show calculated effective temperatures. Field test pressure coefficients for all the buildings are given in Appendix B.

#### NCEL WIND TUNNEL TESTS

#### Wind Tunnel Configuration

The wind engineering study was performed in the NCEL boundary layer wind tunnel, which is partially shown in Figure 21. The wind tunnel is an open circuit facility driven by a 45-horsepower vaneaxial propeller, with a test cross-sectional area of 0.762 by 1.524 meters (2.5 by 5 feet) (test section height and width) and a 7.315 meter (24-foot) length. The free stream velocity in the wind tunnel ranges from 3.5 to 20 m/s (11.48-65.62 f/s). The general characteristics of the wind tunnel are shown in Figure 22.

**BUILDING 1** TIME = 14.07DATE = 07/07PRESSURE (PA) PRESSURE PRESSURE (PA) PRESSURE !! TAP DIFFERENCE COEFFICIENT 11 TAP DIFFERENCE COEFFICIENT !! 0.27 (0.27)11.35 ( 5.50) 2.70 (1.51) 1.88 (4.70) 1,1 !! 4,1 , 2 5.41 ( 2.02) 1.28 (0.68) 4,2 11 3.25 ( 1.70) 3.07 ( 1.67) 1.64 ( 1.41) 0.75 ( 0.50) 0.67 ( 0.43) 11 4, 11 5 0.36 (0.33) 5 11 1.57 ( 1.54) 0.00 ( 1.44) -1.49 ( 1.36) 0.37 (0.37) -0.02 (0.37) -0.38 (0.38) 6 7 6 11 7 11 8 11.48 ( 5.85) 5.47 ( 2.47) 3.29 ( 1.94) 2,1 5, 1.11 (5.26) 0.32(0.27)2.76 (1.57) 1 222222 2 1.30 (0.78) 2 11 , 3 0.76 ( 0.58) 3 , 3.08 (1.81) 4 0.70 (0.53)4 5 6 7 , 0.59 (1.41) -0.16 (1.57) 0.11 ( 0.32) -0.05 ( 0.37) 5 6 7 !! !! , -1.04 (1.52)-0.27 (0.38)11 8 -2.39 (1.29)-0.61 (0.38)!! 3 6,1 , 1 4.38 ( 2.60) 1.03 (0.76) !! 0.07 ( 0.18) 1.00 (0.75)2 6, 3 , 3 6 4 !! 6 4 , 5 5 !! 6 6 6 6 !! , 7 6 7 11 8 6 8 WIND DATA VELOCITY (M/S) DIRECTION (DEG) LBL 3.5 (0.7)8 MCAS 2.5 8 **EFFECTIVE** AIR DEW RELATIVE TEMPERATURE (C) 29.9 (0.7) TEMPERATURE (C) LOCATION POINT HUMIDITY (%) 2 COMPUTER ROOM 22.3 64 (1.1)27.0 30.7 (1.4)(19.5)0 20 METERS NORTH -1.0 -1 -1.029.1 26.4 2 DORM ROOM (1.6)22.2 66 (0.8)(0.7)O WEATHER TOWER -1.0(-.9) -1.0 78 -1.02 COMPUTER ROOM 29.4 (1.5)23.3 21.8 91 22.5 **MCAS** 

ESTIMATED INSIDE AIR VELOCITY (M/S)

LOCATION CALCULATED ORIFICE SECOND FLOOR 0.25 2.18

ESTIMATED NATURAL VENTILATION RATES (M^3/HR)

LOCATION INTO BUILDING OUT OF BUILDING LBL INFILTRATION SECOND FLOOR 38065 31340 32408

BARCMETRIC PRESSURE (KPA) MCAS 101.43

Figure 12. Data sample from Building No. 1.

TIME = 2.82DATE = 07/11PRESSURE (PA) PRESSURE 11 PRESSURE (PA) PRESSURE TAP DIFFERENCE TAP DIFFERENCE COEFFICIENT 11 COEFFICIENT 11 1.57 ( 1.60) 0.56 ( 1.22) 2.35 ( 1.48) 3.21 ( 1.95) 0.62 (0.69)0.57 (1.46) !! 4,1 0.42 (0.41), 2 0.28 (0.66) -0.55 ( 0.87) 0.50 (0.59) !! 4,2 1,3 1.18 ( 1.66) 4,3 1.33 (1.22) 0.49(0.73)11 0.40 ( 0.51) 0.40 ( 0.42) 1,4 1.40 (1.22)11 2.26 (1.54)(1.03) (0.95) (0.89) , 5 -0.49-0.21(0.49)!! -1.511.07) (0.43)6 0.18 0.05 !! 4, -0.80(0.80)0.39 0.41)7 -0.530.38 0.13 0.48)4 (0.67)0.4111 , 0.45)8 0.02 (1.05)-0.02 (0.54)-0.85 ( 0.78) 0.36 (0.41)!! !! 2 2 2 2 , 2 , 3 2 4 5 6 4 5 6 2 2 7 8 1.18 ( 0.91) 0.52 (0.55)-0.04 (0.11)0.53 (0.55)3 33 6, , 2 , 3 3 4 6 3 5 6 6 6 б 7 6 1! 6,8 1.24 (0.92) 0.54 (0.56)!! -0.07 (0.14)0.57 (0.58)WIND DATA DIRECTION (DEG) VELOCITY (M/S) LBL 2.6 (0.7)-3 7 (2) 3.1 **MCAS** DEW RELATIVE AIR **EFFECTIVE** LOCATION TEMPERATURE (C) POINT HUMIDITY (%) TEMPERATURE (C) 12.5 ( 0.5) ( 1.5) 1 KITCHEN 27.3 (0.4)40 26.1 O UNDER CARPORT (0.9)20.0 75 24.7 22.2 ( 0.5) ( 0.7) 1 LIVING ROOM 26.5 12.7 42 (1.0)25.4 0 WEATHER TOWER 23.7 (1.2)21.0 84 22.3 1 LIVING ROOM 23.1 (0.9)23.7 MCAS 26.9 83 25.2 ESTIMATED INSIDE AIR VELOCITY (M/S) LOCATION CALCULATED DISA ORIFICE WEST APARTMENT 0.13 (0.02) 0.00  $(M^3/HR)$ ESTIMATED NATURAL VENTILATION RATES LBL INFILTRATION LOCATION INTO BUILDING OUT OF BUILDING WEST APARTMENT 127 133 46 BARCMETRIC PRESSURE (KPA) MCAS 101.27

Figure 13. Data sample from Building No. 2.

TIME = 3.58	DATE = 07/16			
PRESSUR TAP DIFFER	RE (PA) PRESSURE RENCE COEFFICIENT	!! !! TAP	PRESSURE (PA) DIFFERENCE	PRESSURE COEFFICIENT
1 , 2 5.96 ( 1 , 3 -6.20 ( 1 , 4 -3.99 (	(4.40) 1.16 (0.91) (4.34) 1.13 (0.95) (4.71) -1.11 (0.86) (2.53) -0.78 (0.58) (2.20) -0.57 (0.54)	!! 4,5 !! 4,6 !! 4,7 !! 4,8	9.67 (5.62) 9.36 (5.62) -3.06 (3.30) -0.59 (1.17) 0.55 (1.78)	-0.63 ( 0.47) -0.60 ( 0.50) -0.59 ( 0.52) -0.63 ( 0.49) -0.61 ( 0.51)
2 , 3 -3.00 ( 2 , 4 -1.69 (	(3.28) 1.00 (0.74) (3.10) 0.90 (0.85) (2.72) -0.57 (0.55) (2.45) -0.33 (0.47) (1.94) -0.35 (0.49)	1! 5, 1 !! 5, 2 !! 5, 3 !! 5, 4 !! 5, 6 !! 5, 7	6.81 (3.74) 6.14 (3.58) -1.79 (1.32) -0.36 (0.78) -0.34 (1.19)	-0.31 (0.45) -0.29 (0.54) -0.22 (0.41) -0.25 (0.42) -0.25 (0.48)
3 , 2 5.39 ( 3 , 3 7.07 ( 3 , 4 -5.85 ( 3 , 5 -4.01 ( 3 , 6 -2.17 ( 3 , 7 -1.29 (	( 3.23) 1.37 ( 1.01) ( 4.36) -1.04 ( 0.77)	!! 6,2	4.49 ( 3.32) 8.74 ( 4.10) 10.37 ( 6.16) -2.64 ( 2.66) -0.66 ( 1.56) 0.98 ( 1.83) 1.91 ( 1.96) 0.40 ( 2.12)	-0.62 ( 0.44) -0.58 ( 0.49) -0.65 ( 0.58) -0.59 ( 0.57) -0.61 ( 0.48) -0.54 ( 0.48) -0.60 ( 0.47) -0.58 ( 0.45)
WIND DATA  VEL LBL 3.9 MCAS 8.6		DIRECTION 1 7	(DEG)	
LOCATION 2 EAST LIVING RO 0 SOUTH BALCONY 2 WEST LIVING RO 0 WEATHER TOWER 2 WEST LIVING RO MCAS	26.4 (0.5) 24.8 (1.0) 25.2 (1.2) 23.9 (1.3)	POINT F 23.2 20.2 20.7	HUMIDITY (%) 1 83 (0.7) 76 (40.4)	EFFECTIVE TEMPERATURE (C) 25.2 22.3 23.5 21.4
	E AIR VELOCITY (M/S)	DISA	ORIFICE 2.31 1.85	
ESTIMATED NATURA LOCATION EAST APARTMENT WEST APARTMENT	AL VENTILATION RATES INTO BUILDING 259 205	(M^3/HR) OUT OF BUII 12129 9688	LDING LBL IN 562 562	
BAROMETRIC PRESS	SURE (KPA) 01.24			

STORE STORES STORE STOR

Figure 14. Data sample from Building No. 3.

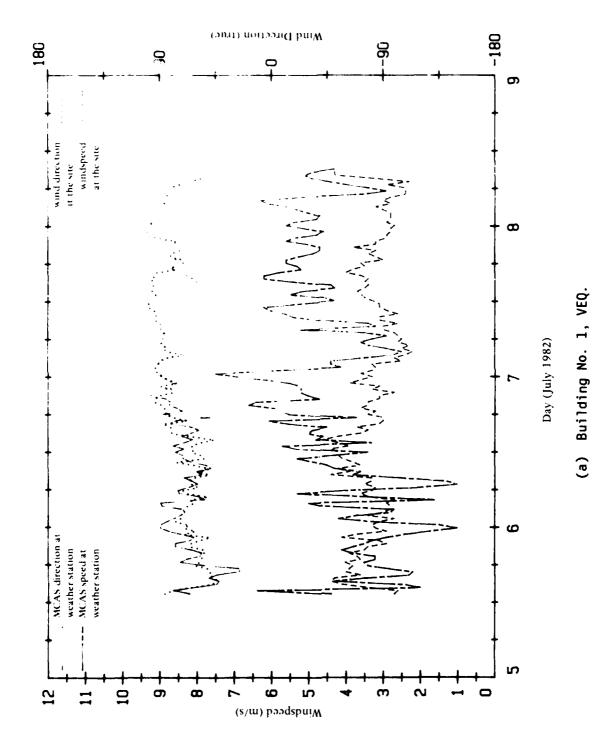


Figure 15. Windspeeds and directions.

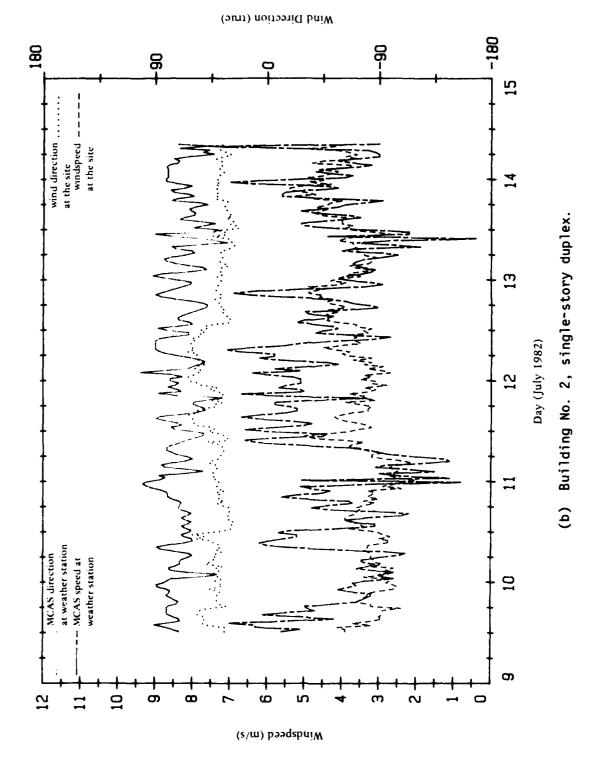
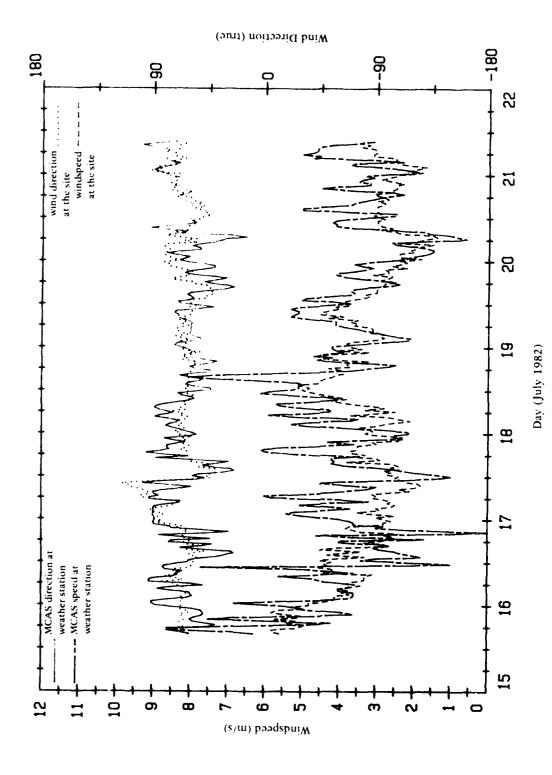


Figure 15. Continued.



(c) Building No. 3, two-story fourplex. Figure 15. Continued.

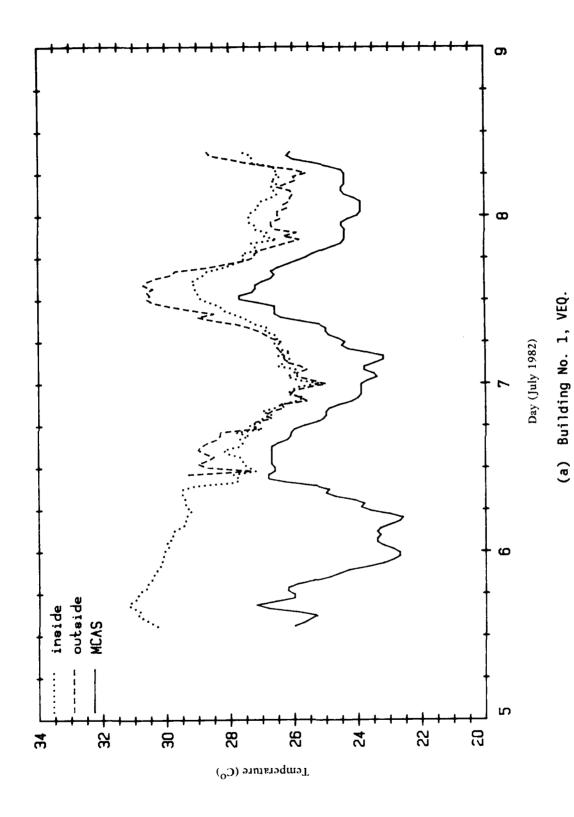
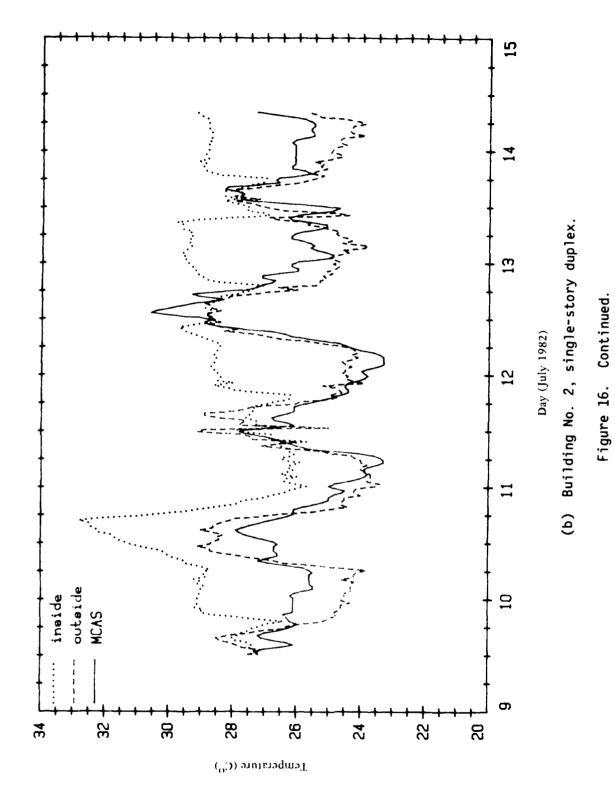
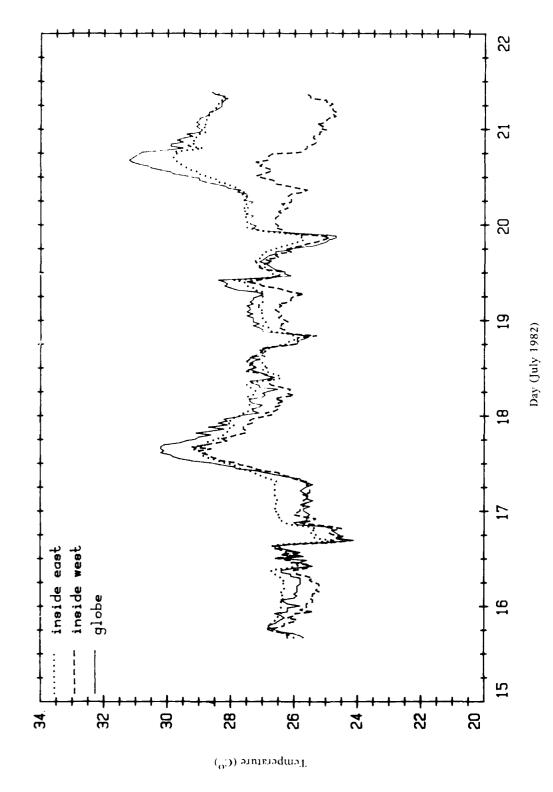


Figure 16. Dry bulb air temperatures.





(c) Building No. 3, two-story fourplex (inside temperatures).

Figure 16. Continued.

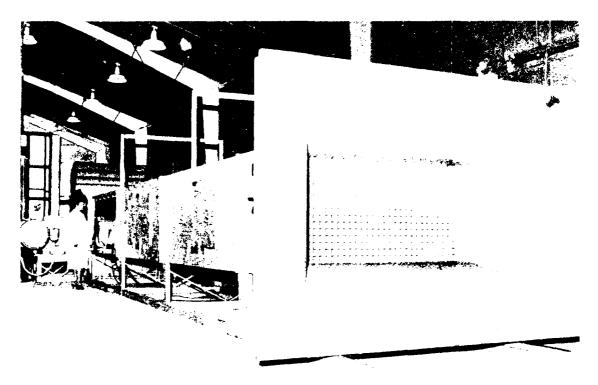


Figure 21. NCEL boundary layer wind tunnel.

## Wind Tunnel Test Models

Modeling the aerodynamic loading on a structure requires special consideration of airflow conditions in order to guarantee similitude between the model and prototype. In general, the requirements are that the model and the prototype be geometrically similar (Ref 14, 15 and 16), that the approach mean wind velocity at the building site have a vertical profile shape similar to the full-scale airflow, that the turbulence characteristics of the airflows are similar, and that the Reynolds number for the model and the prototype are equal. The criteria were satisfied by constructing scale models of the buildings tested in Hawaii. The building geometry is described by two ratios: the side ratio (length/width) and the aspect ratio (width/height). ratios of 0.125, 0.3 and 0.35 were tested over a range of aspect ratios Model 1, Figure 23, was made of plexiglass and from 0.3 to 0.5. instrumented at 20 locations with pressure taps. Models 2 and 3, Figures 24 and 25, were made of plywood and instrumented at 20 locations at mid-height with pressure taps. Maximum model blockage was limited up to 5% of the cross-sectional test area (Ref 14). Scale of models ranged from 1:46 to 1:80.

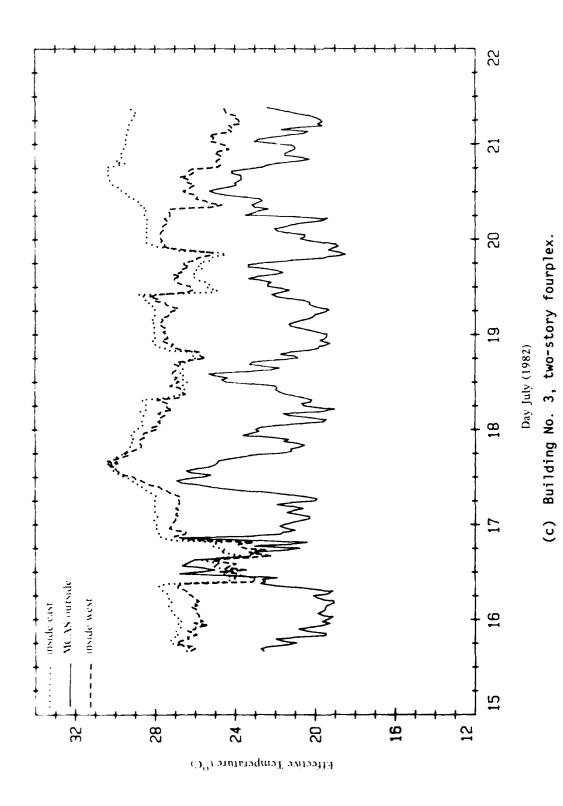


Figure 20. Continued.

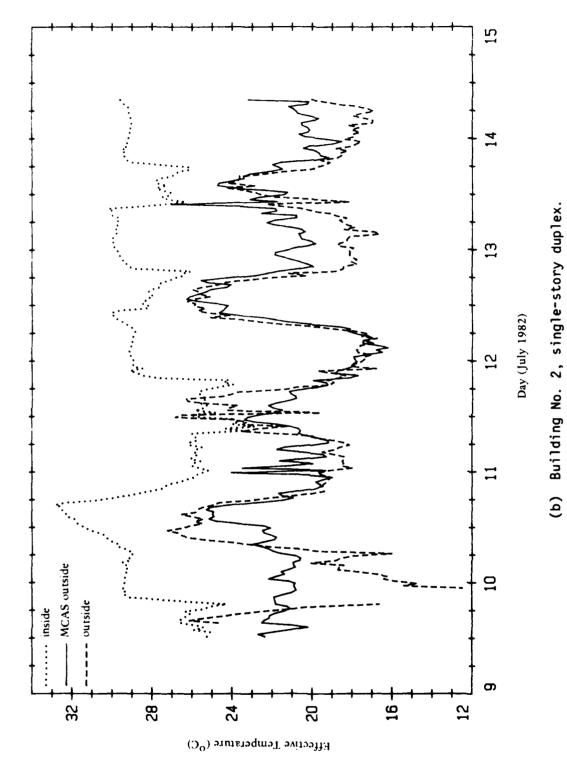


Figure 20. Continued.

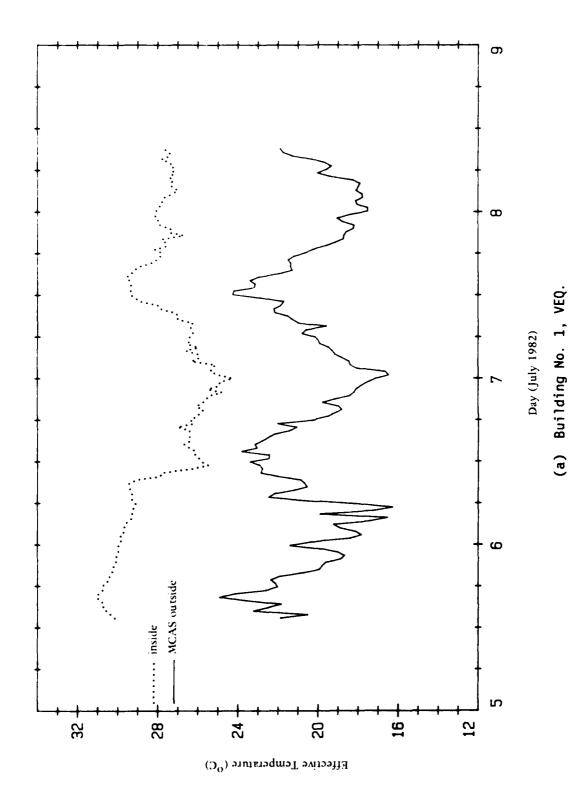


Figure 20. Effective temperatures.

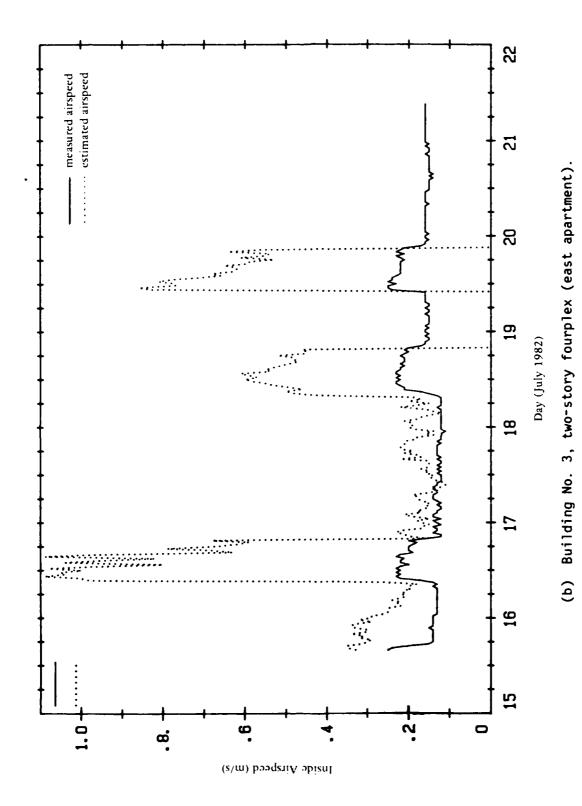


Figure 19. Continued.

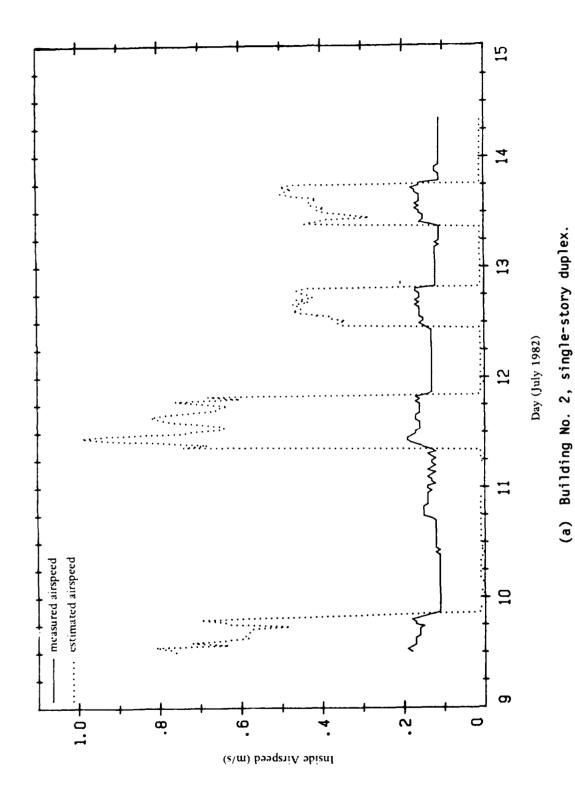


Figure 19. Interior airspeeds.

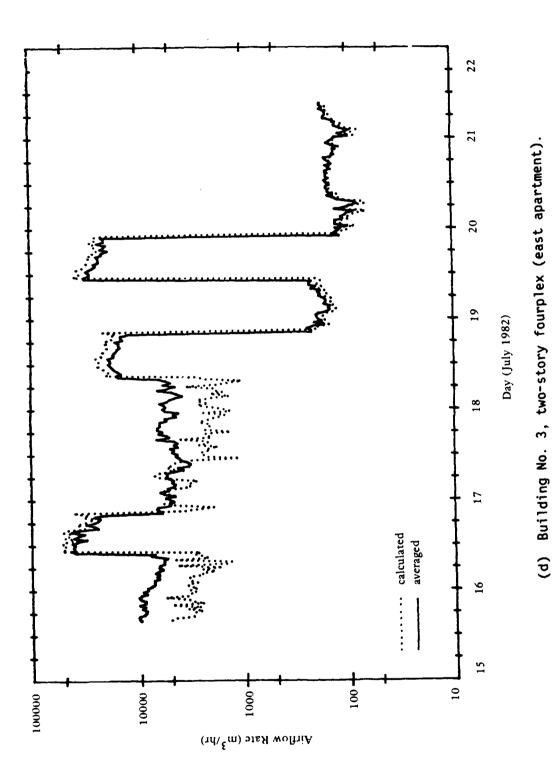
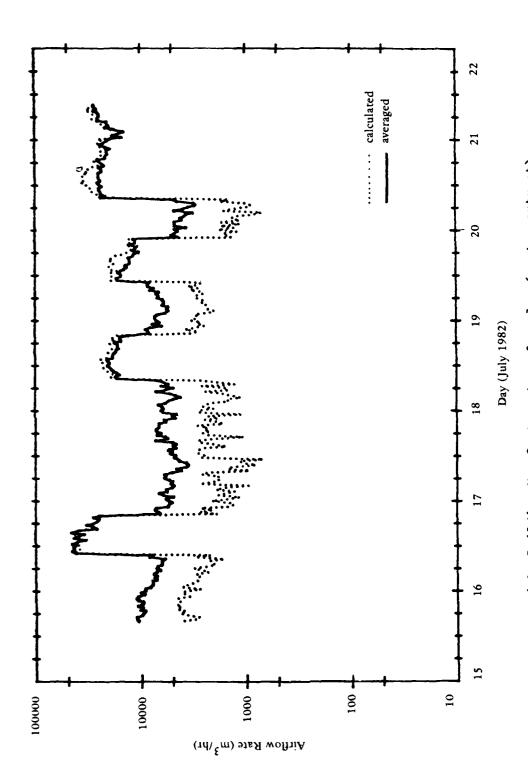
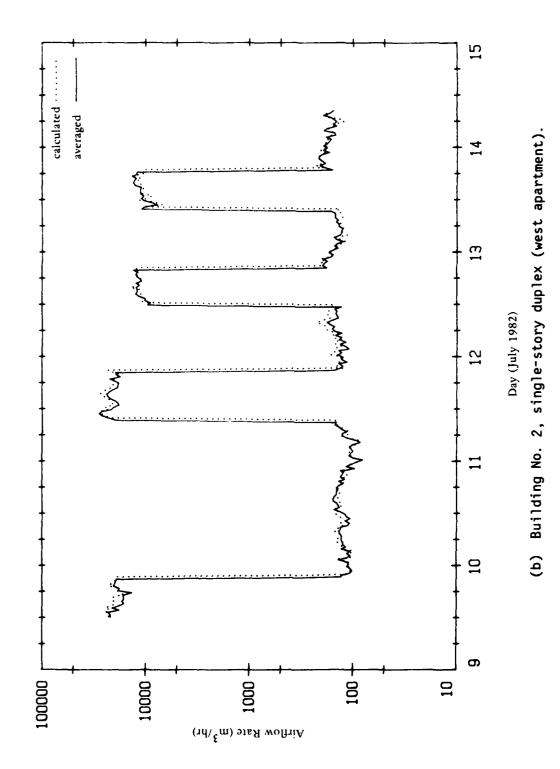


Figure 18. Continued.



(c) Building No. 3, two-story fourplex (west apartment).

Figure 18. Continued.



Continued.

Figure 18.

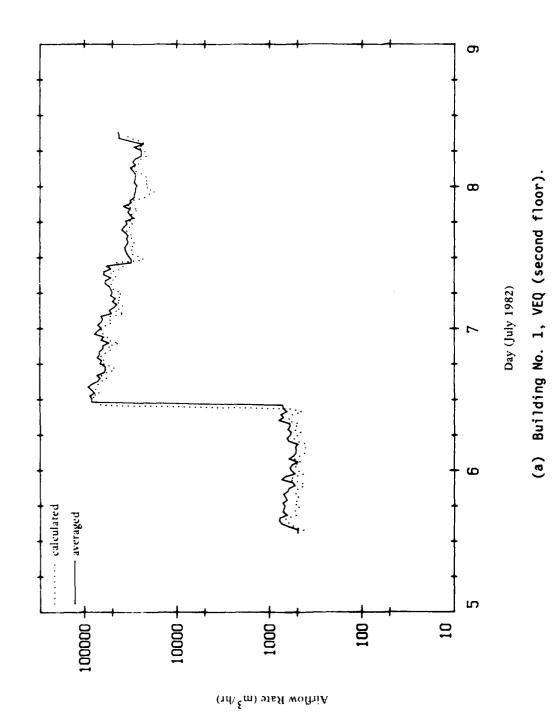
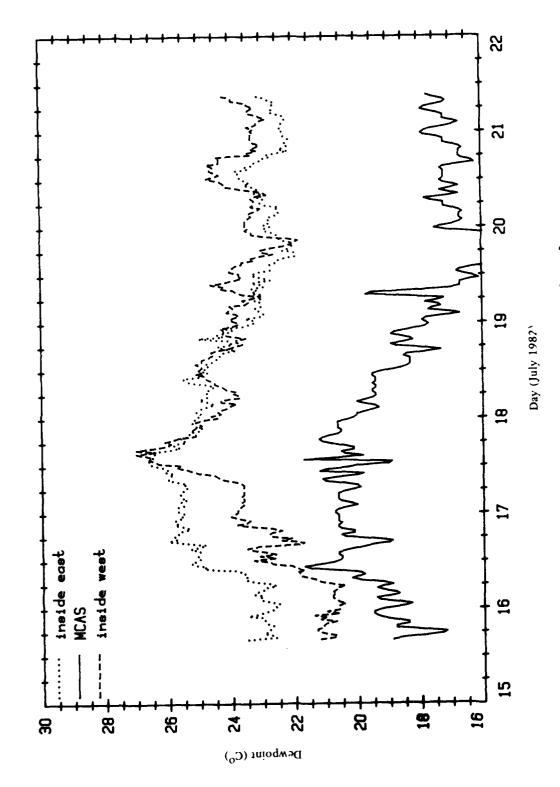


Figure 18. Estimated airflow rates.



(c) Building No. 3, two-story fourplex.

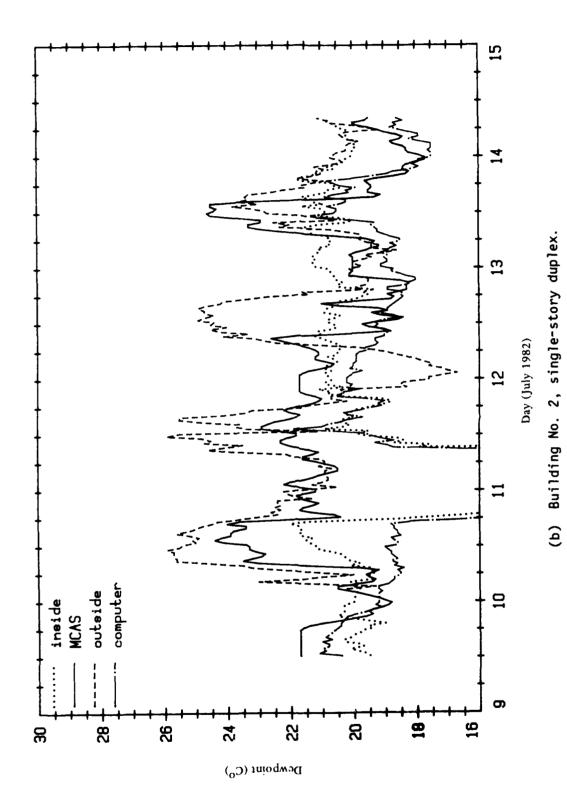


Figure 17. Continued.

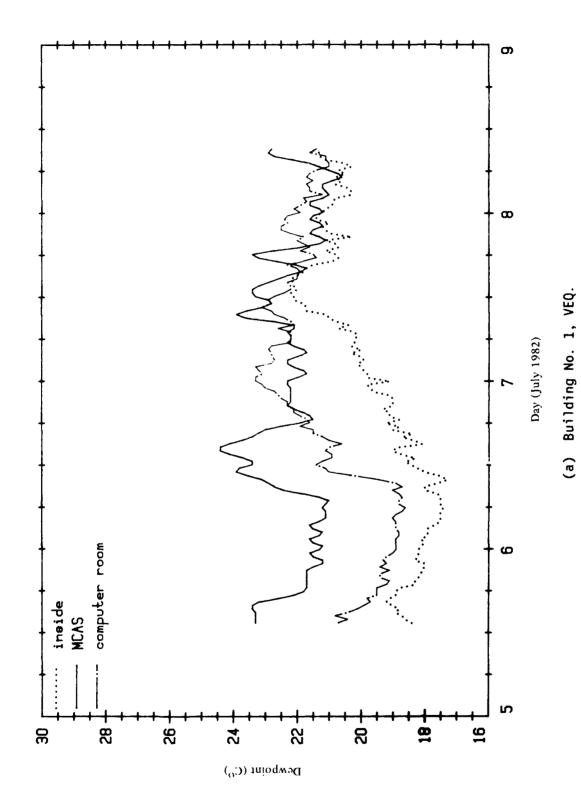


Figure 17. Dew point temperatures.

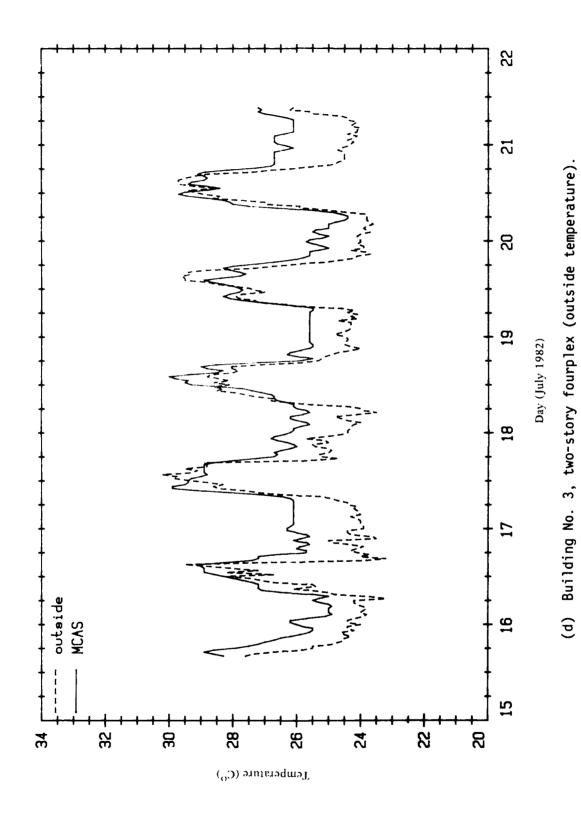


Figure 16. Continued.

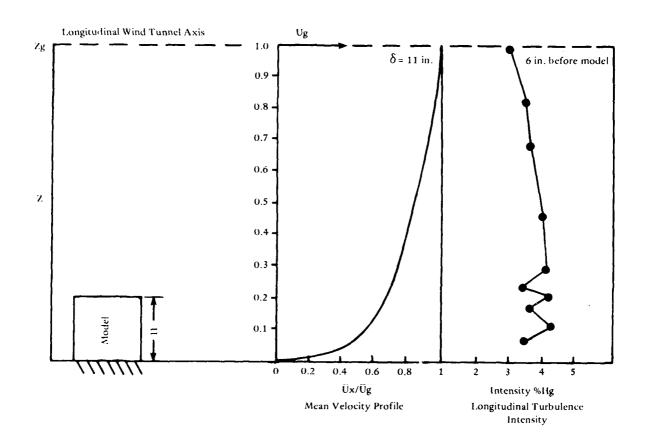


Figure 22. General characteristics of the NCEL wind tunnel.

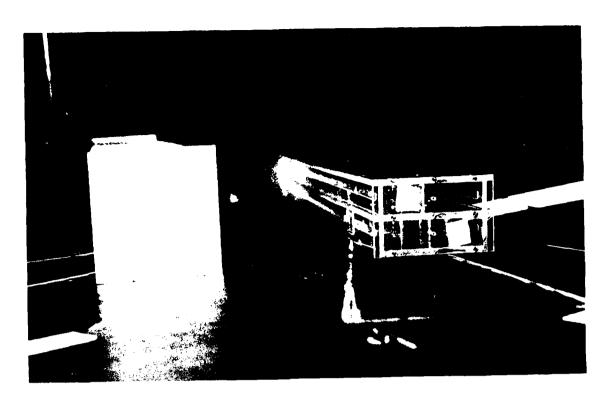


Figure 23. Model 1.



Figure 24. Model 2.

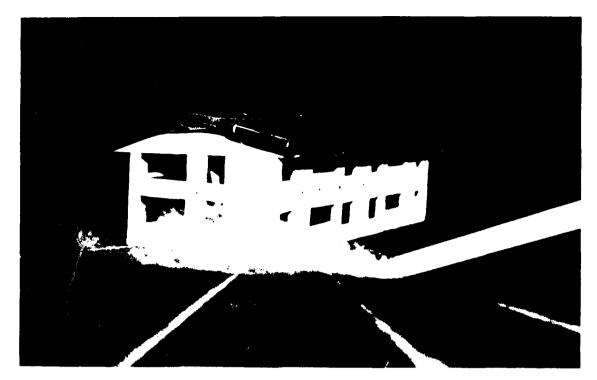


Figure 25. Model 3.

A combination of wire mesh (Figure 26), and a step board positioned at 0.914 and 5.5 meters (3 feet and 18 feet), respectively, upwind of the model produced a mean wind velocity profile (power law exponent 0.20) (Figure 27a and b). From the windspeed data taken at the site and data recorded by the MCAS weather station, the terrain seem to have characteristics of a country with scattered windbreaks. For the distribution of mean windspeed with height, the power law expression (Ref 15) of the form:

$$\bar{U}_{z}/\bar{U}_{q} = (z/\delta)^{a}$$
 (6)

where:  $\bar{U}_z$  = mean wind velocity at height z

= gradient wind volocity in the free stream

= power law exponent

= boundary layer thickness

Z height

was used to represent the mean wind velocity profiles; the exponent  $\alpha$ was set about 0.20.

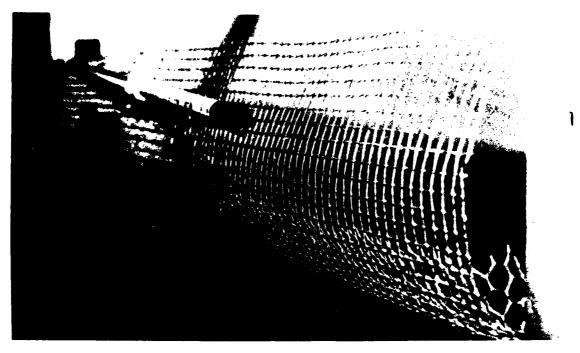
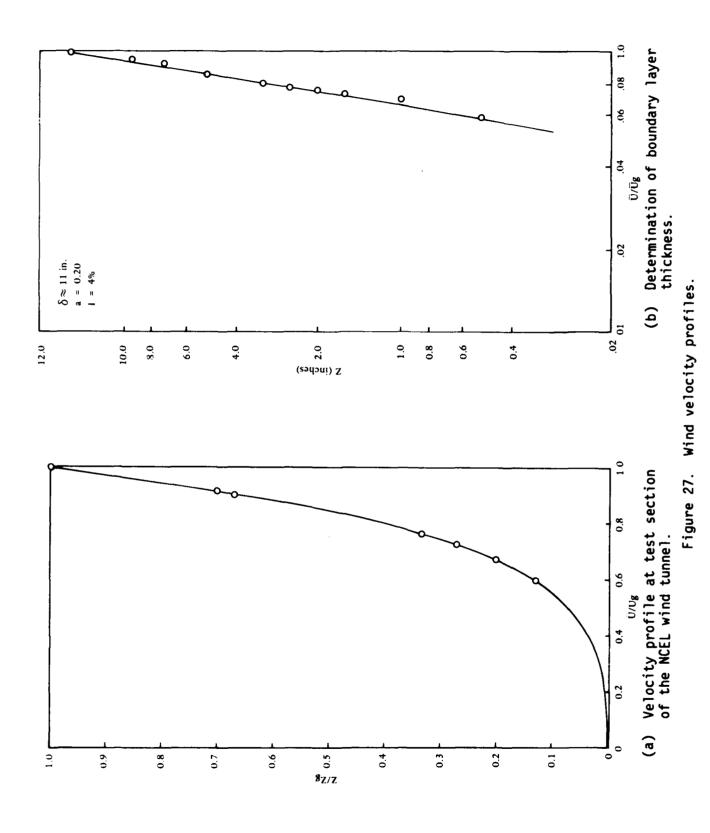


Figure 26. Wire mesh used in NCEL wind tunnel tests.

The windspeed used in the wind tunnel ranged from 14.8 f/s to 17.1 f/s (4.5 m/s to 5.2 m/s) above the boundary layer and 10.8 f/s (3.3 m/s) at the 2-1/2-inch height.

The turbulence intensity, I, into the shear layer was not subjected to as stringent requirements as was the mean wind velocity profile. This was because full-scale data of turbulence intensity for sites with specific terrain characteristics are extremely limited. However, tests conducted in the NCEL wind tunnel and at other facilities show that an increase in turbulence intensity will cause a change on base pressures, and the pressure coefficient at the center of the windward wall increases while the coefficients at the periphery of the windward wall decreases. Overall it was found that a 90-100% increase in turbulence intensity caused an overall decrease in pressure difference coefficient of 10% at wind incidence perpendicular to the windward wall. studies are required to assess the effect of rapid pressure fluctuations with turbulence on natural ventilation rates. It is believed that these pressure fluctuations may be important for special situations, for example, where buoyancy is dominant and pressure difference across the building is comparatively small. The turbulence intensity in the wind tunnel ranged from 3.5 to 4.2% along the vertical axis (Figure 22).



Reynolds number similarity requires that the quantity  $UD/\nu$  (wind speed x diameter/kinematic viscosity) be similar for model and prototype. Since  $\nu$  is identical for both, the Reynolds number cannot be made precisely equal with reasonable wind velocities. Wind velocity in the wind tunnel would have to be the model scale factor times the prototype wind. However, for a high Reynolds number (>  $10^5$ ) a pressure coefficient at any location on the structure will be essentially constant with Reynolds number. A value  $\bar{>}$  .011 x  $10^6$  in the wind tunnel (Ref 16) will meet the requirement.

The building Reynolds number for all models ranged from .03 x  $10^6$  to .14 x  $10^6$  with a boundary layer thickness of at least twice the building model height.

## Instrumentation and Data Acquisition

<u>Airflow Visualization</u>. Airflow visualization in the vicinity of the model is helpful in understanding and interpreting mean and fluctuating pressures, in defining zones of separated airflow, and reattachment where pressure coefficients can be expected to be high. Mineral oil smoke was produced by a smoke generator, Figure 28, and was released from a source near the model. Video tape records and photographs were made. Conclusions obtained from these smoke studies are discussed later.

<u>Pressures</u>. Pressure and interior and exterior windspeed measurements were measured by strain gage pressure transducers, hot-wire anemometers, and a 32-channel intelligent data logger (Figure 29). The pressures measured were the difference between instantaneous local pressure at a location on a building and the static pressure in the ambient airflow over the models. Mean pressure coefficients were averaged over an entire side of a model. The average pressure coefficient used was defined by:

$$\bar{c}_{p} = \frac{\overline{P-P}_{o}}{0.5 \rho U_{R}^{2}}$$
 (7)

where:  $\bar{C}_n$  = average pressure coefficient

P = pressure at location on the building

 $P_{\alpha}$  = local static pressure

 $\rho$  = density of air

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 $U_D$  = windspeed at site at roof level

The average pressure difference coefficient,  $\Delta \overline{C}_p$  calculated as follows:

$$\Delta \bar{c}_{p_{J-i}} = \bar{c}_{p_J} - \bar{c}_{p_i}$$
 (8)

where: i, J = subscripts for opposite sides of the model  $\bar{c}_{p_i}$ ,  $\bar{c}_{p_j}$  = average pressure coefficient for each side

Data were obtained from six to nine different wind directions from 0 to 90 degrees. Model 1, Building No. 1 at MCAS, Hawaii, was placed in an isolated and sheltered environment with and without wall openings. Model 2, Building No. 2 at MCAS, Hawaii, was placed in an isolated environment with no adjacent structures present, with and without wall openings and carports and was elevated. Model 3, the two-story home at MCAS, Hawaii, was placed in an isolated environment with and without wall openings. Interior airspeeds and pressures were measured for each wind direction for Models 2 and 3.

## Wind Tunnel Test Results

<u>Airflow Visualization</u>. Smoke was used to make the airflow visible. The characteristics of the airflow around and through the models are shown in Figures 30 through 32.

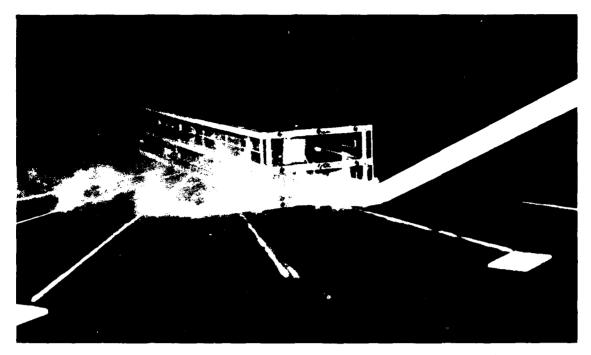
With the airflow approaching 32 degrees to the east side of Model 1, Figure 30a, the high velocity airflow passed around the corner. The effect of a two-story building located behind Model 1 is shown in Figures 30b through 30g. The airflow between the two buildings was turbulent and a slightly positive pressure on the upper east side of the leeward long side was observed. This caused a reduction on ventilation rates through Model 1.



Figure 28. Smoke generator and strain gage pressure transducers.



Figure 29. K-data logger, JVC color video camera, cassette recorder, and TV monitor used to measure pressure and inside and outside windspeeds.

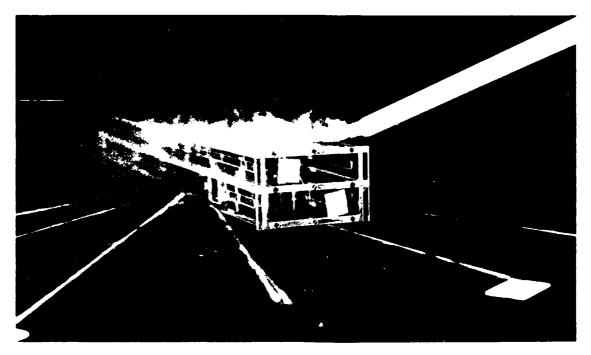


(a) Airflow around Model 1, isolated (windows opened).

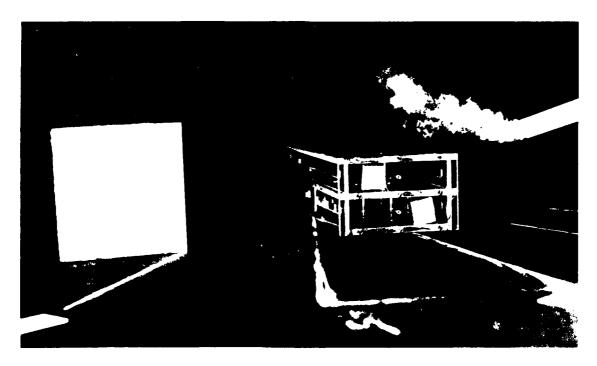


(b) Effect of neighboring building on the airflow around Model 1. Distance between models is 2-1/2 the height of Model 1 (windows opened).

Figure 30. Smoke tests of Model 1. Model 1 was tested with windows opened and closed, isolated and sheltered, with wind incidence of 60 degrees to long wall ( $\alpha$  = 30 degrees).

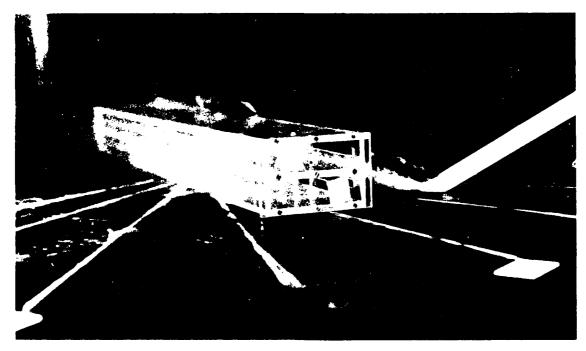


(c) Airflow over the roof of Model 1, isolated (windows opened).

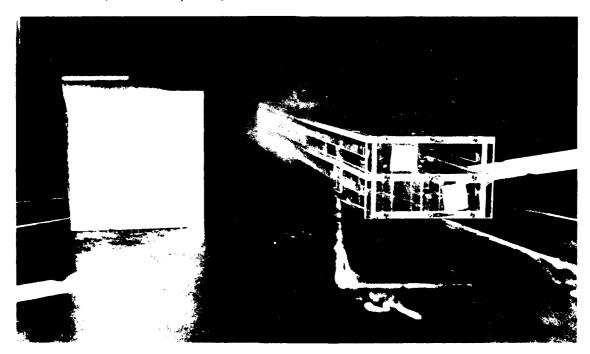


(d) Effect of neighboring building on airflow over the roof of Model I (windows opened).

Figure 30. Continued.

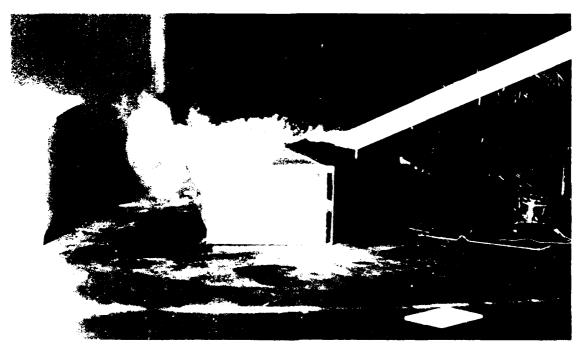


(e) Airflow around Model 1 from long windward side, isolated (windows opened).



(f) Effect of neighboring building on airflow over Model 1, (windows opened).

Figure 30. Continued.



(g) Airflow over the roof of Model 1, sheltered (windows closed).

Figure 30. Continued.

Model 2 smoke test showed that the airflow was attached on the windward side of the roof and separated on the leeward side as seen in Figures 31a, b, c, and d. Also, the effects of carports on airflow was small, which indicates that the ventilation rates were not greatly affected. The airflow around Model 3 was generally well behaved. The reattachment zone occurred over the small living room window on the east side; hence, it tended to increase the ventilation rates of the upper and lower east apartments, as seen in Figures 32a through e. In general the model tests agreed with the field tests.

<u>Pressure</u>. For each of the pressure ports examined, the data recorded were analyzed and a mean pressure coefficient,  $\overline{C}_p$  was obtained. This coefficient represents the mean of the instantaneous pressure difference between building pressure ports and static pressure in the wind tunnel outside the boundary layer nondimensionalized by the dynamic pressure,  $0.5 \, \rho \, U_R^{\ 2}$ , ahead of the model and at roof level, and averaged over a period of 30 minutes, with three instantaneous readings per minute.



(a) Airflow over Model 2 without carports, windows opened, and windward side.

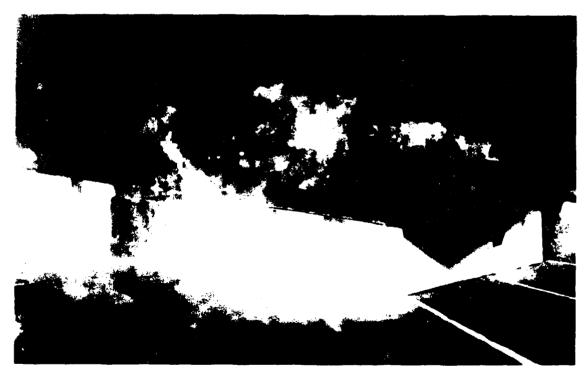


(b) Airflow over Model 2 without carports, windows opened, and leeward side.

Figure 31. Smoke tests of Model 2. Model 2 was tested with windows opened, with and without carports, and with the wind incidence of 30 degrees to long windward wall ( $\alpha$  = 60 degrees).

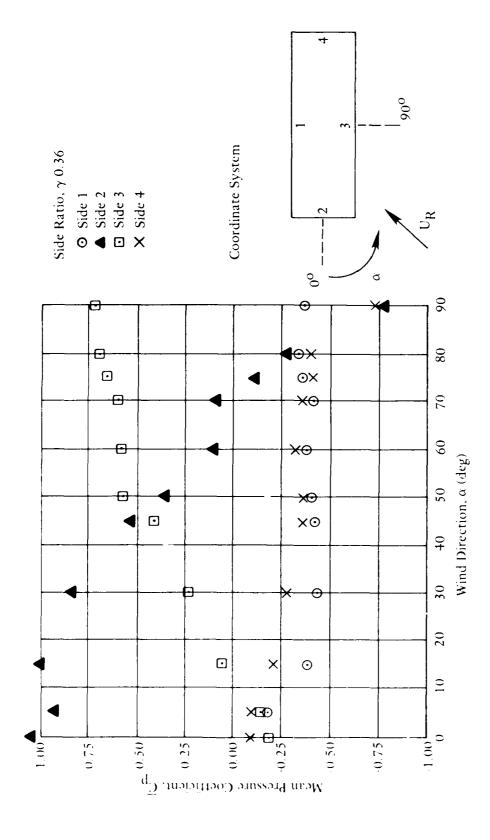


(c) Airflow over Model 2 with carport on windward side with windows opened (side view of Model 2).

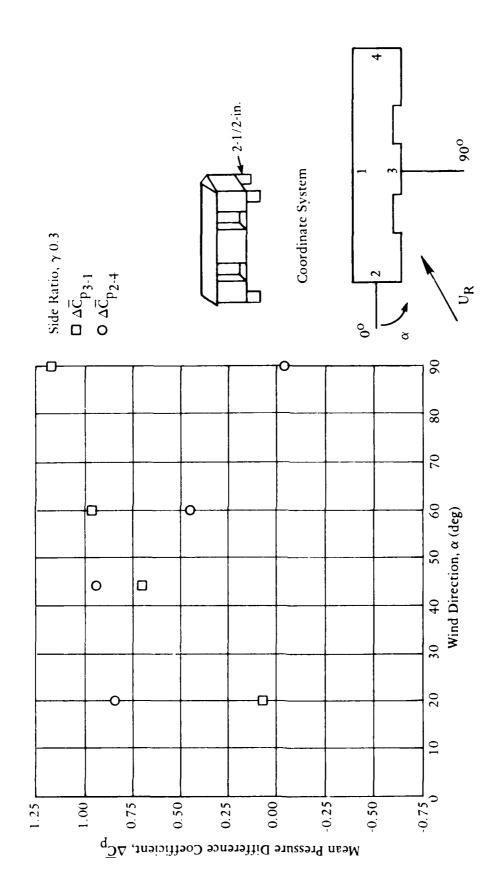


(d) Airflow over Model 2 with carport on windward side with windows opened (leeward view of Model 2).

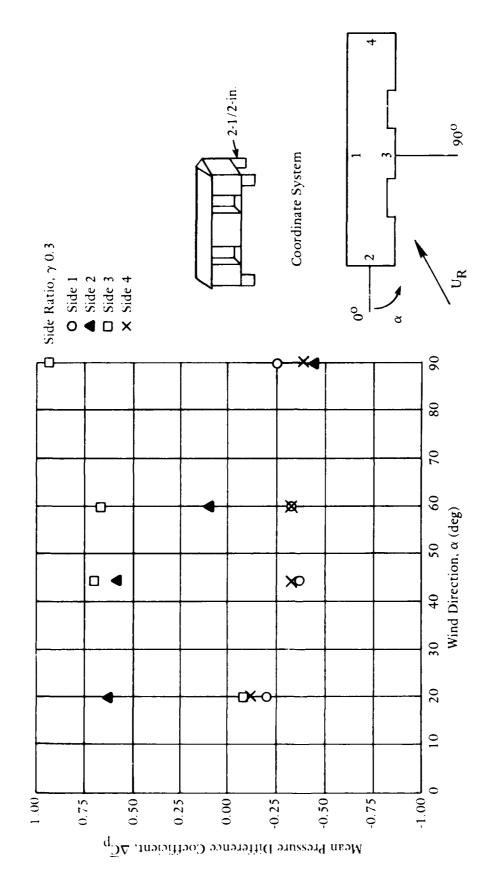
Figure 31. Continued.



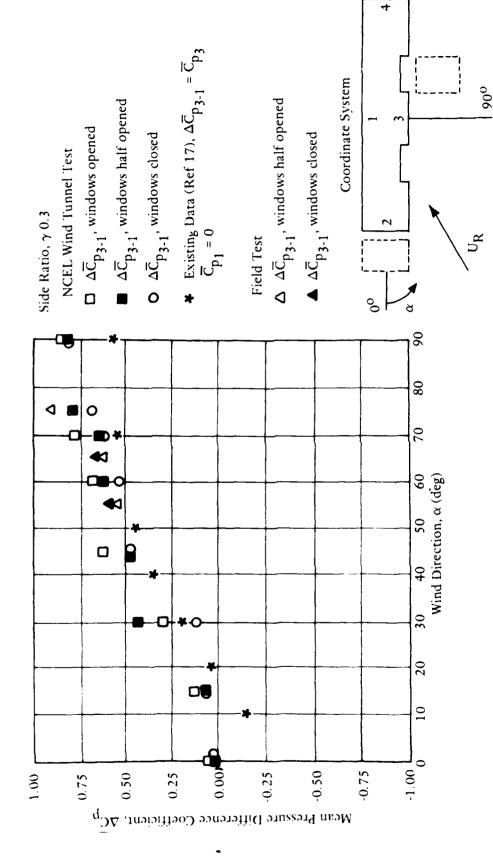
Mean pressure coeffic ant for all sides of Model 3 with the windows closed. Reference windspeed was measured at roof level. Figure 43.



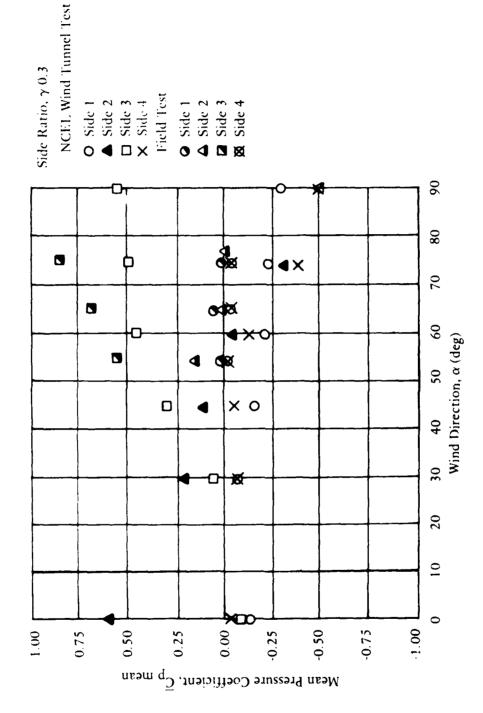
Mean pressure coefficient between windward and leeward sides of Model 2. Model 2 was isolated, elevated, and the windows were opened. Figure 42.



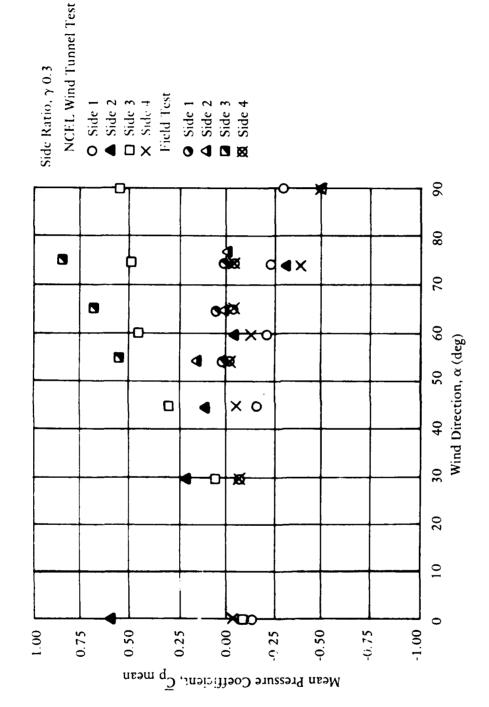
Mean pressure coefficient for all sides of Model 2, isolated, elevated and windows opened. Reference windspeed was measured at roof level. Figure 41.



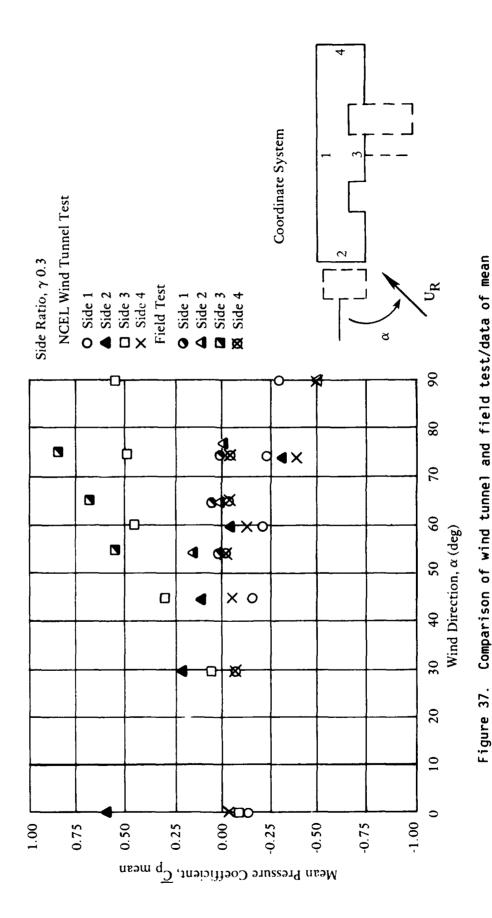
Comparison of wind tunnel, field test, and existing data of mean pressure coefficient between windward and leeward sides of Model 2. Figure 40.



Comparison of wind tunnel and field test data of mean pressure coefficient based on reference windspeed measured at roof level for Model 2, the windows were opened (15%). Figure 39.

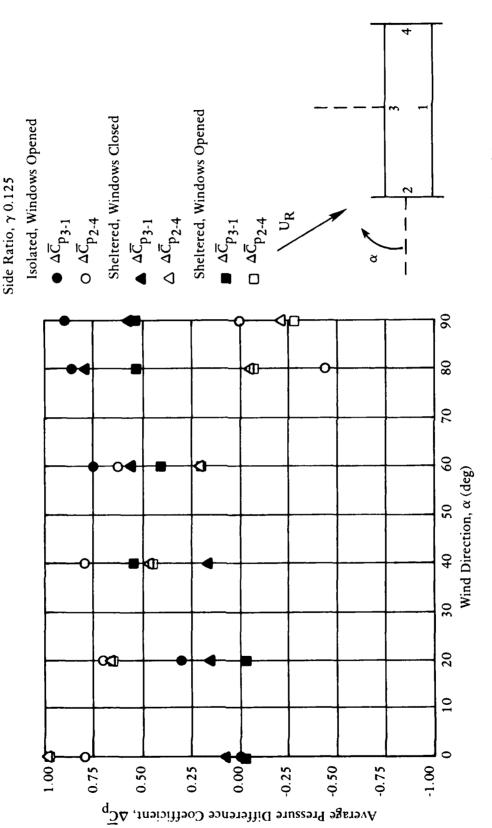


sure coefficient based on reference windspeed measured at roof level for Model 2, the windows were half opened (7.5%). Comparison of wind tunnel and field test/data of mean pres-Figure 38.

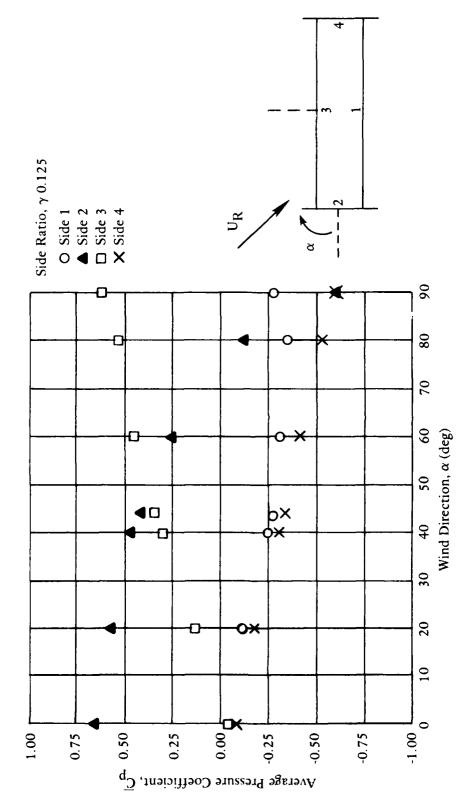


pressure coefficient based on reference windspeed measured at roof level for Model 2, the windows were closed.

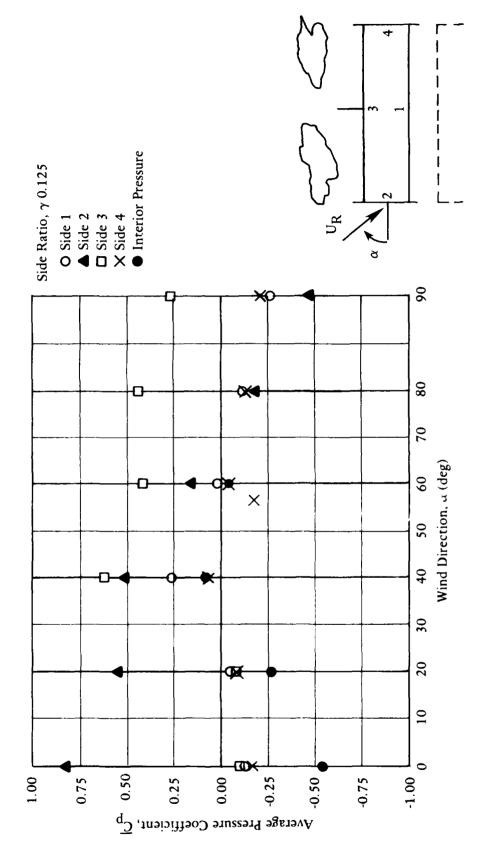
71



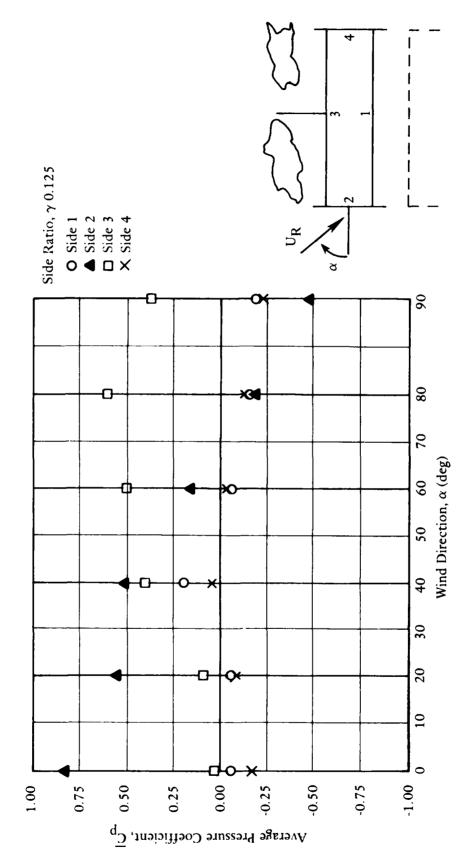
Average pressure difference coefficient between opposite sides of Model 1 (reference windspeed measured at roof level). Figure 36.



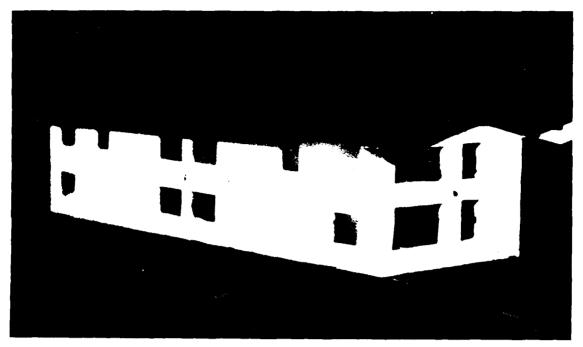
Average pressure coefficient of Model 1 with windows opened (opening size 40% of windward long wall, side 3) in an isolated environment (reference windspeed measured at roof level). Figure 35.



Average pressure coefficient of Model 1 with windows opened (opening size 40% of windward long wall, side 3) and in a sheltered environment (reference windspeed measured at roof Figure 34.



Average pressure coefficient for Model 1 with windows closed and in a sheltered environment (reference windspeed measured at roof level). Figure 33.



(e) Airflow over and through Model 3 (leeward side view of second floor).
Figure 32. Continued.

Mean pressure coefficients for each port,  $\bar{C}_p$ , were averaged for each side at mid-height, and an average pressure coefficient,  $\bar{C}_p$ , was obtained. These values were used to calculate the average pressure difference coefficient,  $\Delta \bar{C}_{pi,j}$ , between oppsite sides of the model, and for all cases.

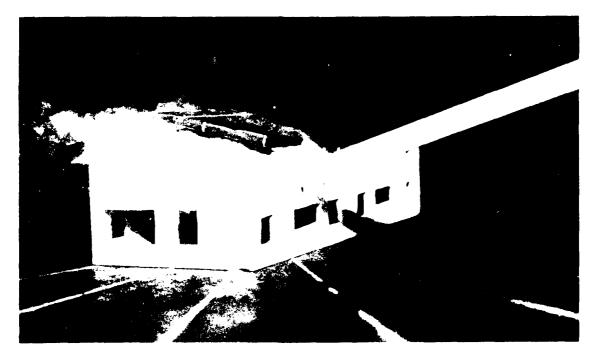
A graphic representation of the wind tunnel test results is given in Figures 33 through 45 for all models and all cases. In addition to the wind tunnel results, results of existing data (Ref 17) and field test data are also included in some of the figures and Appendix B.

## COMPARISON OF WIND TUNNEL TESTS, FIELD TESTS, AND EXISTING DATA

Since adequate wind tunnel modeling should reproduce the important aspects of the field data, the full-scale data were compared with the scale model measurements. The average pressure coefficient,  $\bar{C}_p$ , and the average pressure difference coefficient,  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$ , between opposite sides of the models as measured in the wind tunnel, are shown in Figures 37, 38, 39, 40, 45, 46, 47, and 48. The values were compared to the experimental values obtained from field tests.



(c) Airflow over Model 3 (windward view of second floor).

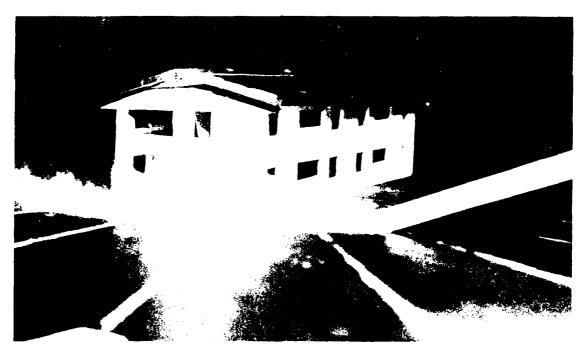


(d) Airflow over and through Model 3 (side view of second floor).

Figure 32. Continued.

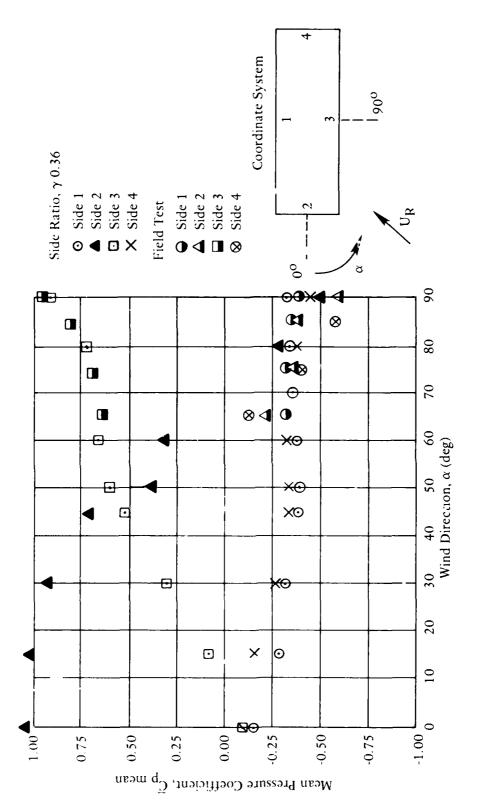


(a) Airflow over and through Model 3 (windward view of first floor).

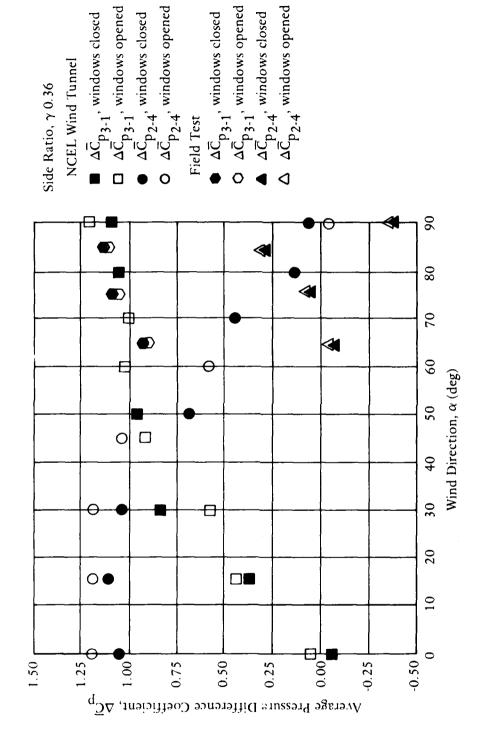


(b) Airflow around and through Model 3 (side view of first floor).

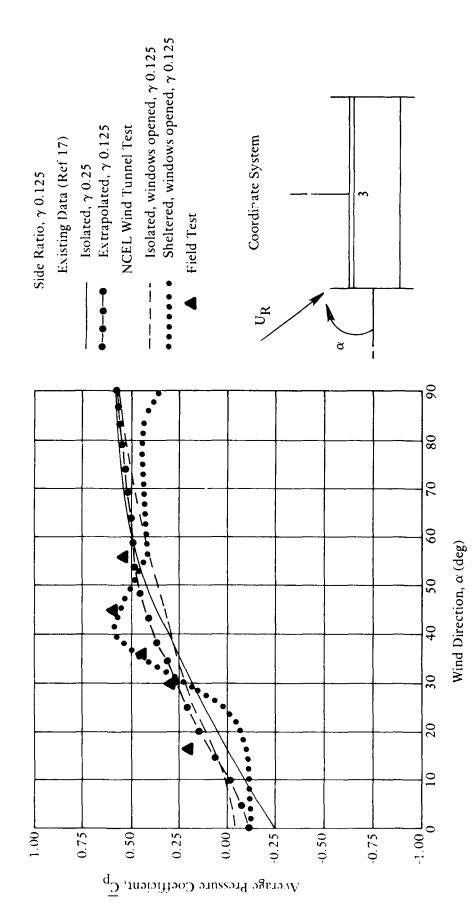
Figure 32. Smoke tests of Model 3. Model 3 was tested with windows opened. Wind incidence was 20 degrees to long windward wall ( $\alpha = 70$  degrees).



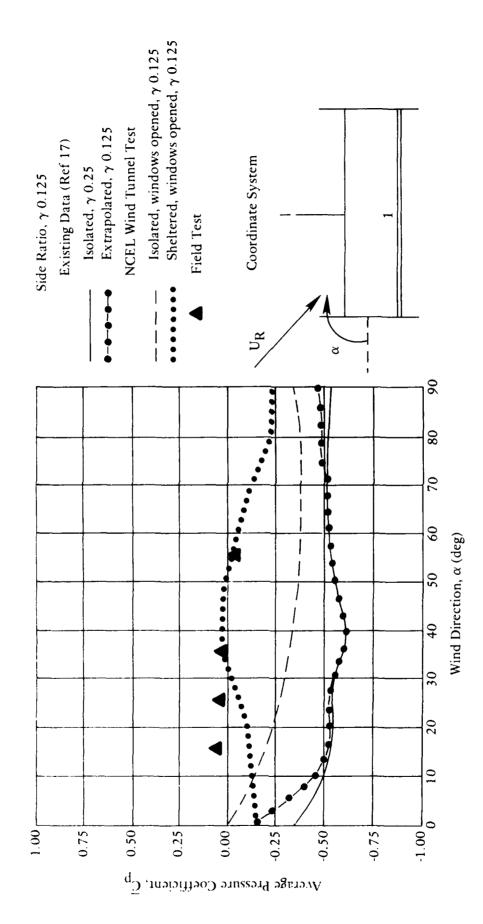
Reference windspeed was measured at roof Mean pressure coefficient for all sides of Model 3 with windows opened. Reference windspeed was measured at roo level. Figure 44.



Comparison of wind tunnel and field test data of average pressure difference coefficient between windward and leeward sides of Model 3. Figure 45.



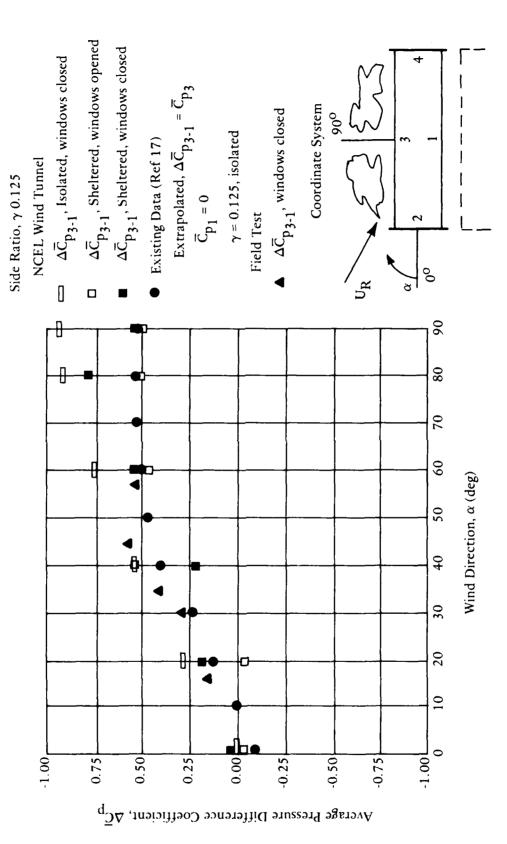
Comparison of wind tunnel tests, field tests, and existing data of average pressure coefficients of Model 1 (windward Figure 46.



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Comparison of wind tunnel tests, field tests, and existing data of average pressure coefficient of Model 1 (leeward side). Figure 47.



Comparison of wind tunnel tests, field tests, and existing data of average pressure difference coefficient between windward and leeward sides of Model 1. Figure 48.

Values of  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  between the short walls of the models for angle of incidence 79-90 degrees do not correlate well with field test data due to fluctuating wind and two malfunctioning pressure taps as mentioned earlier in the text. Model 2's pressure coefficient for side 1 (see Figure 39) went positive and the coefficient for the short sides are less negative for the field test. It is believed that the hill, located directly behind Model 2, had an effect on the leeward side. In the wind tunnel the hill was not modeled on the downwind side. Modeling the hill would have had a much smaller model scale of Building 2.

Values of the  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  between the long walls of the field test data are in close agreement with the NCEL wind tunnel test data for all models (Figures 40, 45 and 48). Figures 36, 40, 45, and 48 show the effect of window openings on the  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$ . Wind tunnel measurements of Model 1 show that a wall opening area equivalent to 40% of windward and leeward wall area (inlet openings equal to outlet openings) caused an estimated 33% decrease in the  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  at high wind incidence.

For Models 2 and 3, the wall openings ranged from 0 to 15% of windward and leeward walls and slightly increased the  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$ . The sheltering effect of trees and buildings located close to the building (Model 1) is also shown in Figure 48. A 30% decrease of  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  was noted for various wind incidences (45 - 90 degrees). Figure 49 shows the average pressure difference coefficients for Model 2 on-grade and elevated. For the elevated case the  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  is greater for  $\alpha$ >45 degrees.

Since only an average pressure difference coefficient  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$ , is needed to estimate the airflow in a building (and in the design criteria for natural ventilation), only an  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  is needed to predict the comfort limits. Therefore, basic data are needed to supply the  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  within a 20% error.

Existing data (Ref 17 and Appendix C, Figures C-1 through C-8) of  $\bar{C}_p$  for flat-roofed, rectangular buildings tend to overestimate the pressure coefficients (Figures 47 and 48) and, consequently, overestimate the  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  for different side ratios. Since most of the buildings have some form of shelter (trees, buildings, etc.), the leeward pressure coefficient was forced to zero and the windward pressure coefficient,

 $\bar{C}_{p,3}$ , set represent  $\Delta \bar{C}_{p,3-1}$  for long walls. These values were compared to the experimental values from field and wind tunnel tests. Figures 40 and 48 show that at high wind incidence the  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  (as assumed) is underestimated for most of the models but is in close agreement at the lower wind incidence. At 0- to 20-degree wind incidence, a  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  to  $\pm 0.15$  is assumed due to the fluctuation of the wind direction. Since architectural features of a building (Figures 41 and 42) tend to increase the  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  the existing data ( $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  is set to the windward pressure coefficient with the leeward pressure coefficient set to zero) can be used as basic data (no special architectural features) in conjunction with other existing data (Ref 14, 18, and 19), and Appendix C, Figure C-9 and Tables C-1 and C-2.

Since most of the buildings had a pitched roof or were flat-roofed and rectangular, a basic set of  $\Delta\bar{C}_p$  curves was developed (Figures 50, and 51). These curves were developed by combining existing wind tunnel and field test data. The observed and expected changes in  $\Delta\bar{C}_p$  due to architectural changes in the basic building design are summarized in Table 8. More testing is needed in order to further validate these curves. The proposed curves reflect the  $\Delta\bar{C}_p$  expected for a basic onestory building. Any deviation from the basic design will cause a change in the  $\Delta\bar{C}_n$ .

Figure 52 compares wind tunnel data of  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  and the estimated pressure difference coefficient,  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  (Figure 51 and Table 8). There is a close agreement between the  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  value and the  $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  value measured in the wind tunnel for Models 1 and 2. For Model 3 there is a close agreement at high wind incidence (60 degrees <  $\alpha$  < 90 degrees), but a difference at the lower wind incidence (Figure 52).

Figures 50 and 51, and Table 8 form the start of a data base of pressure difference coefficients for a variety of buildings with specific architechtural features. Values from this data base can be used to calculate the expected airflow rates through the building using the following equation:

$$Q = C_D A U_R (\Delta \bar{C}_p)^{1/2}$$
 (9)

where:  $Q = airflow rate, m^3/hr (cfm)$ 

 $C_{D}$  = nondimensional discharge coefficient, usually 0.6

A = effective inlet area,  $m^2$  (ft<sup>2</sup>)

 $U_p$  = approach windspeed at the site of roof level, m/hr (fpm)

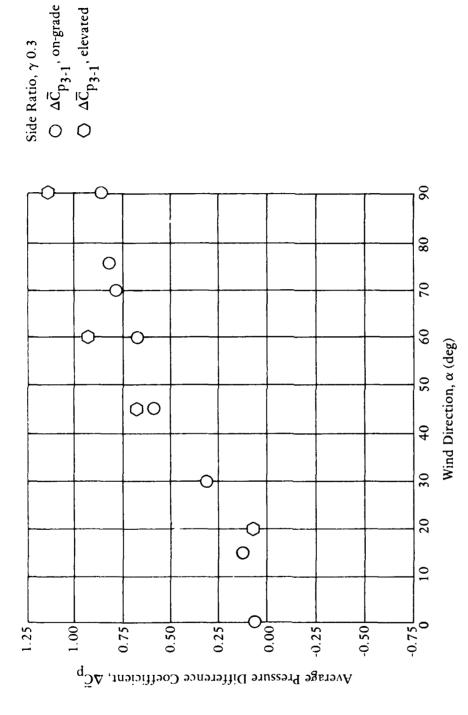
 $\Delta \bar{C}_p$  = nondimensional average pressure difference coefficient between opposite walls of building

Once the airflow rates have been determined, the values can be used for estimating the acceptable comfort levels (effective temperatures) within the building.

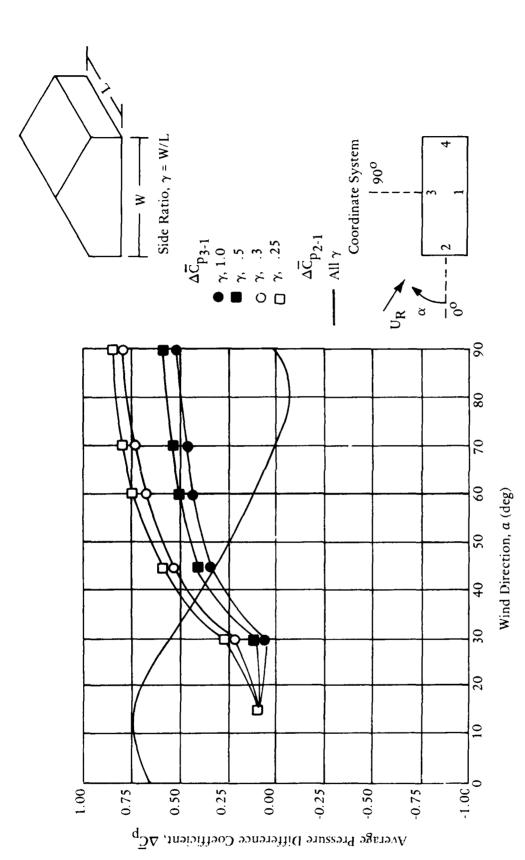
Table 8. Effect of Architectural Characteristics on Pressure Difference Coefficients

Architectural Characteristic	$\Delta \bar{C}_{p}$ (% increase)
Basic design (one story)	0
Two or more stories	40
Single story (elevated above ground)	30
Single story with extended eaves and end walls	25
Single story elevated above ground with extended verandas and end walls	50
Single story with windward wall projections or insets	25

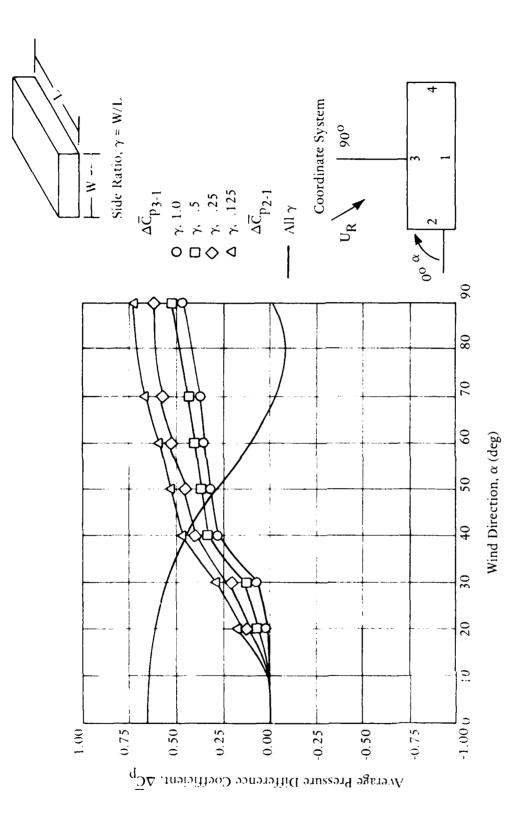
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>If two or more architectural characteristics are combined, the average of the percent increase is taken with a maximum of 50% total increase. These corrections should be used only for the calculation of natural ventilation.



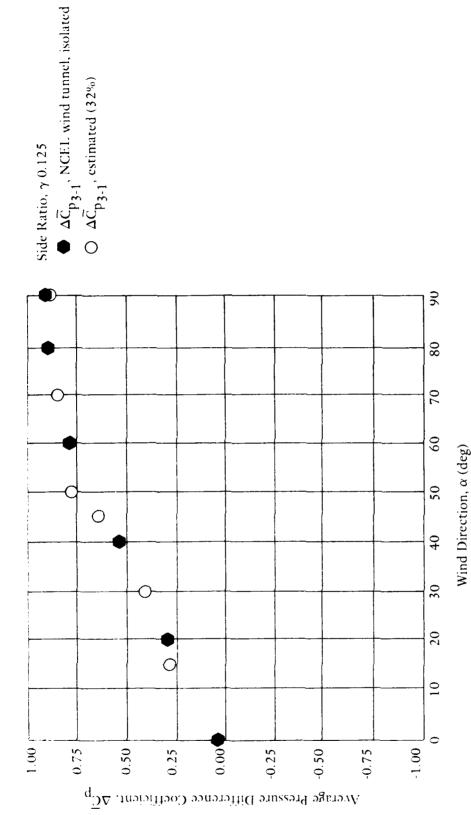
Comparison of average pressure difference coefficient between long walls for Model 2 (on-grade, elevated, and windows opened). Figure 49.



Average pressure difference coefficient for a single-story, on-grade, pitched-roof rectangular building.  $\Delta C$  and  $\Delta C$  is the pressure difference coefficient between  $\dot{}$  3-1 long and short walls of the building. Figure 50.

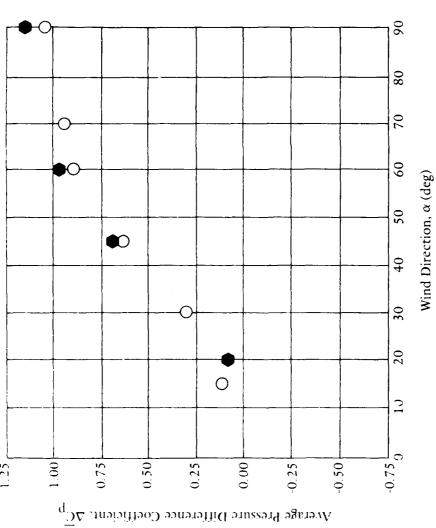


Average pressure difference coefficient for a single-story, on-grade, flat-roof rectangular building.  $\Delta C$  and  $\Delta C$  is the pressure difference coefficient between long and short walls of the building. Figure 51.



(a) Model 1, isolated.

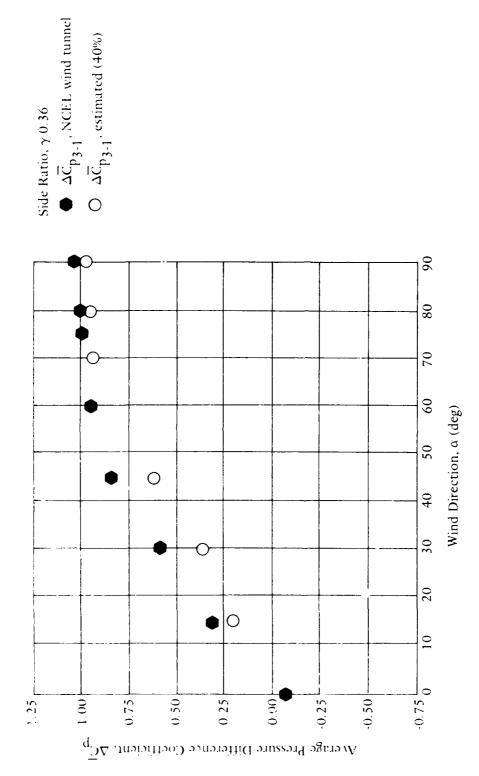
Comparison of measured average pressure difference coefficient and estimated pressure difference coefficient of Models 1, 2, and 3. Figure 52.



Side Ratio,  $\gamma$  0.3  $\Delta \overline{C}_{p_3-1}$ , NCEL wind tunnel, elevated  $\Delta \overline{C}_{p_3-1}$ , estimated (28%)

(b) Model 2, elevated.

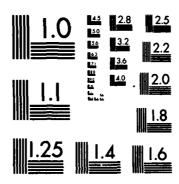
Figure 52. Continued.



(c) Model 3, isolated.

Figure 52. Continued.

AD-A154 909 FIELD AND MIND TUNNEL TESTING ON NATURAL VENTILATION COOLING EFFECTS ON THREE NAVY BUILDINGS(U) NAVAL CIVIL ENGINEERING LAB PORT HUENEME CA 5 K ASHLEY DEC 84 NCEL-TR-912 F/G 13/1 NL



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## COMPARISON OF THE NCEL COMPUTER MODEL AND FIELD TEST RESULTS

Both field and wind tunnel studies are expensive and time consuming ways to investigate natural ventilation. A computer program is a more satisfactory method for the designer to use as a design tool. Such computer programs require information about the weather and pressure coefficient, and information about wind/building/occupant interactions including airflows and comfort levels. Although pressure difference coefficient information can come from field or wind tunnel measurements, a catalog of typical coefficients for different building designs is more convenient.

The NCEL computer program (Ref 20) is such a program. The program consists of two main routines: (1) the airflow routine calculates airflow through the building, and (2) another routine estimates temperatures based on results of airflow routine. The program calculates expected windspeed at site, airflow rates and direction, internal pressure, air changes, interior and exterior effective temperatures, interior dry and wet bulb temperatures, and humidity ratios. (The effective temperatures calculated in the computer program do not use exactly the same algorithms as presented in the effective temperature section; but rather use the values from the ASHRAE Handbook of Fundamentals.) Corresponding input are weather data by region, pressure coefficients, size of openings (exterior and interior, such as windows, doors, etc.), and building heat loads.

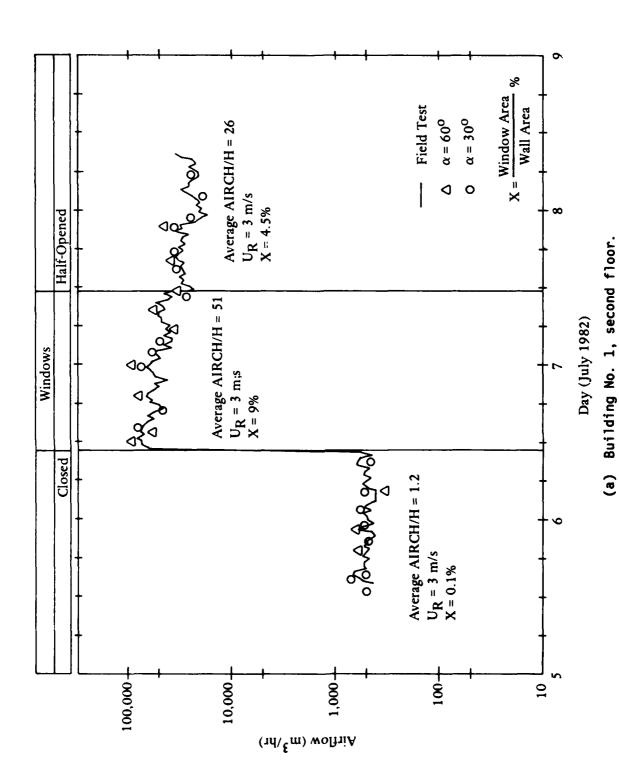
Figures 50 and 51 show the average pressure difference coefficients for each building type for various wind directions. The program can use this value as the windward pressure coefficient by setting the leeward value to zero. If it is used then the pressures printed at the end of the programs will be essentially incorrect, however, the air volume flow rates and direction of airflow will be correct.

For validating the computer program, pressure coefficients from the field test were used as data. The daily weather reports were from: MCAS weather tower (MCAS data), the National Climatic Center\*, Asheville, N.C. (ASHV data) and the corresponding effective temperatures and airflows calculated for each building site. Figures 53a, b, and c compare computer program results of airflow into each building with field test results. The results are within a ±10% accuracy for a closed building (no openings) and ±15% for buildings with openings. Model 3 (Figure 53c) a considerable difference in airflow was observed due to the inability to control the opening of the lanai. Ambient and interior effective temperature comparisons between field tests and the computer model results are shown in Figure 54a, b, c, and d. Figure 54d the two effective temperature algorithms (one used in the NCEL computer program and the one presented earlier) were used on the inside and outside weather data for Building 3. The differences observed from the plot range from 1-2°C, and are indicative of the fact that the effective temperature model presented earlier takes into account activity, clothing, etc.; while the NCEL computer model is based on average metabolic heat rate, and does not take clothing into account. For the full, open inlet area, there is close agreement between field test and computer test results; but there is some deviation for the closed condition.

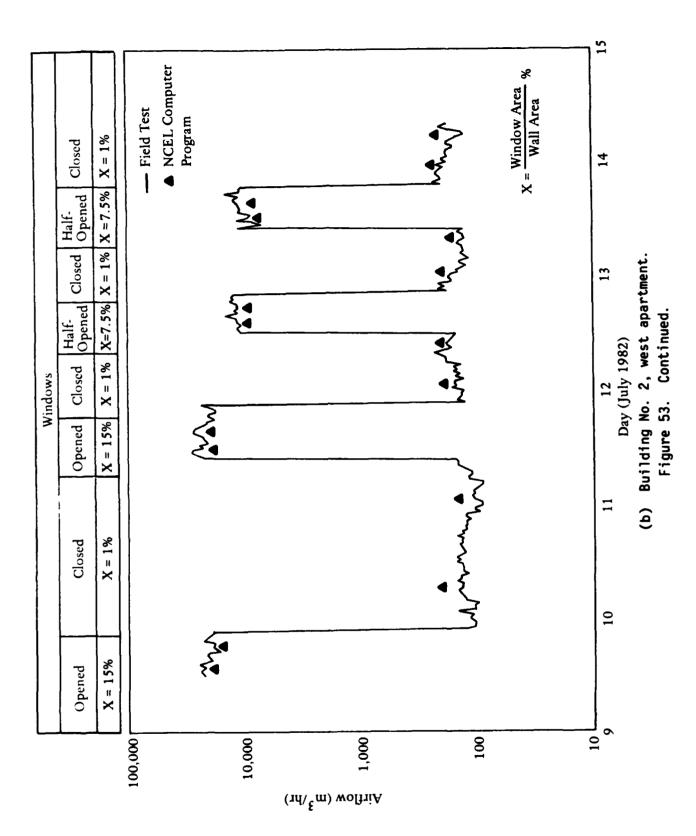
## Discussion

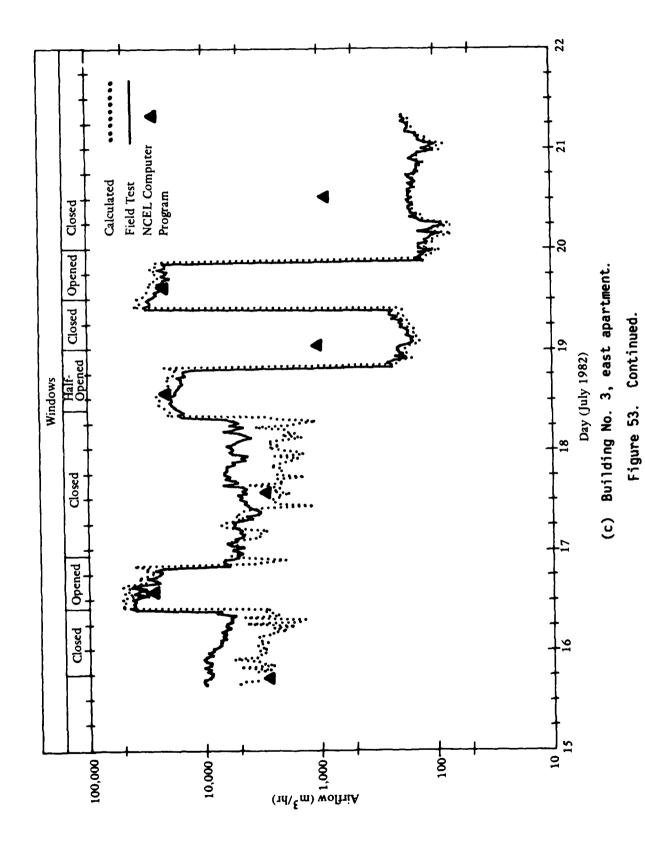
The comparison of the laboratory measurements with the field measurements is encouraging. The use of wind tunnel data can be substituted for full-scale data on pressure coefficients. From the existing data of wind tunnel measurements, average pressure difference coefficients can be cataloged for a variety of buildings with specific architectural features. Computer programs that use this information, such as the NCEL program, can be used as design tools to estimate the effectiveness of natural ventilation for cooling.

<sup>-</sup>Standard weather data representative for this region for the month of July.



Comparison of computer model and field test results of airflows into Buildings No. 1, 2, and 3. Figure 53.

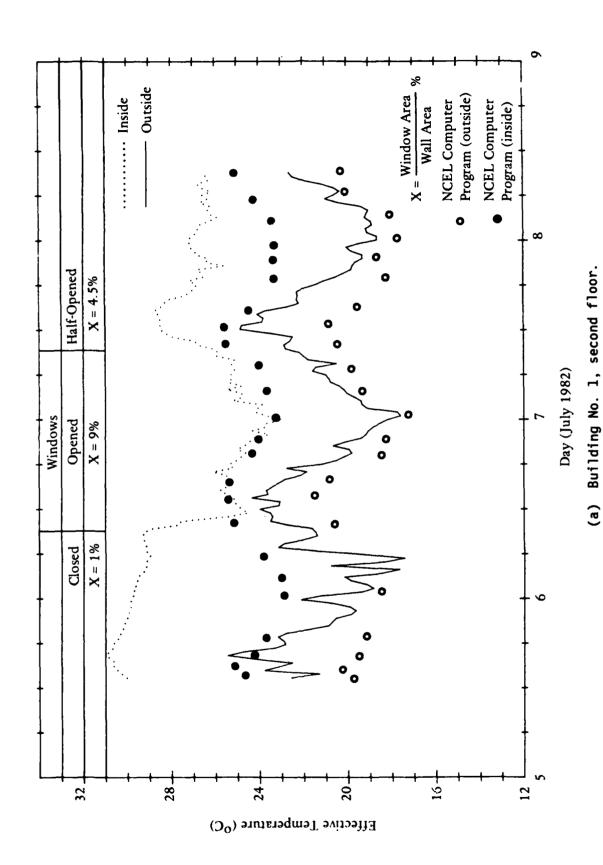




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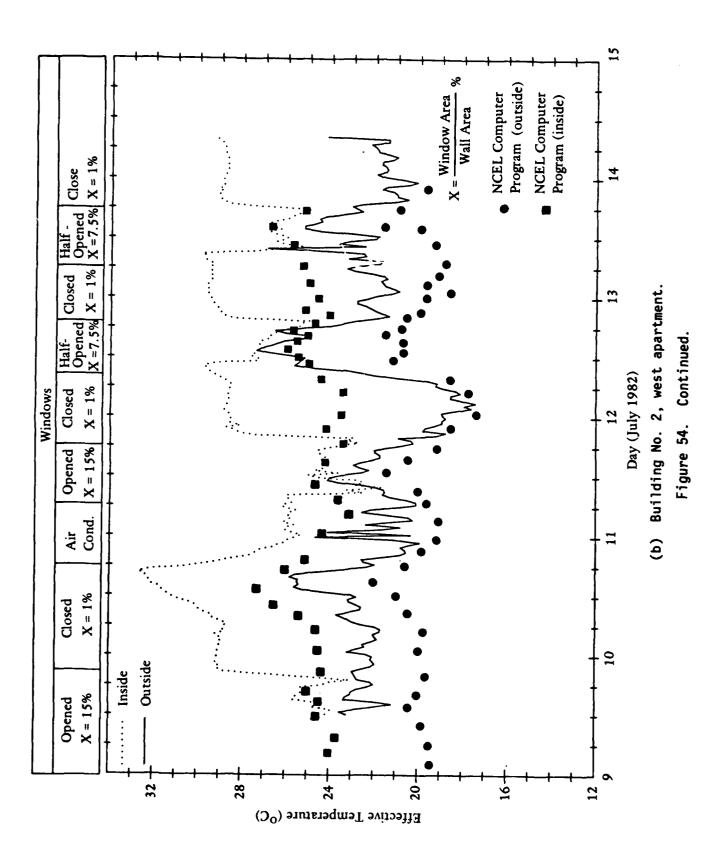
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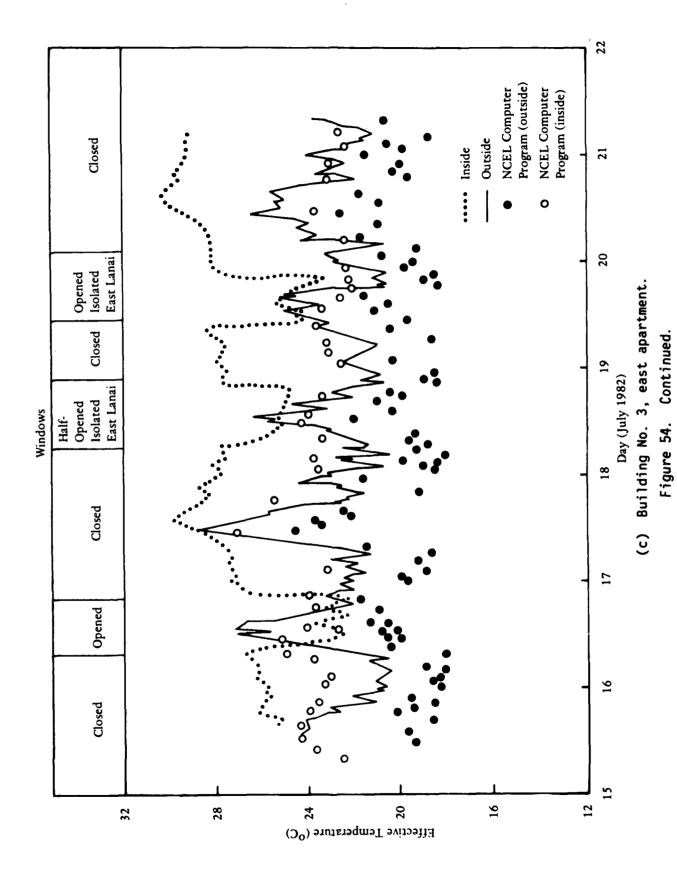


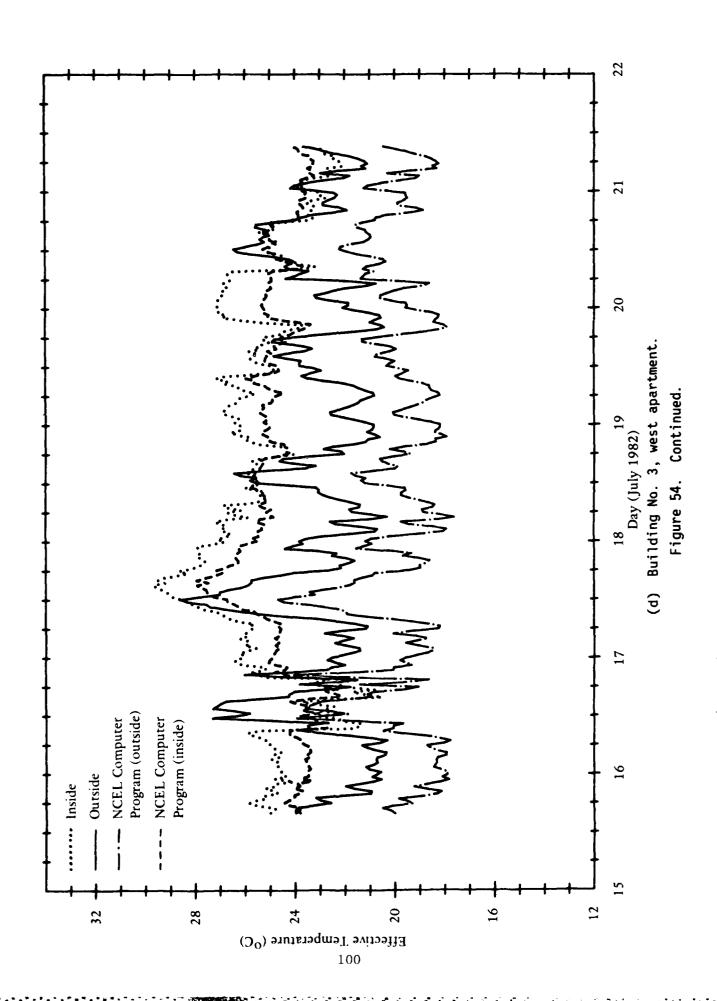
1, 2, and 3.

Effective temperatures for Buildings No.

Figure 54.







In order to use the NCEL computer model as a design tool for natural ventilation, two sets of data are needed: (1) surface pressure coefficients and (2) weather data (information on surface wind velocities and psychometric summaries). For typical calculations, average weather data (e.g. TRY tapes) may be used for determining extreme conditions, the maximum temperature data or weather data recorded for the past 5 years can be used. The final output of the computer model is the predicted time series data for the effective temperature the occupants would experience. For Figure 55a, b, and c, two different sources of weather data were used: (1) the daily weather station and (2) the average weather reports published by the Naval Oceanography Command (designated by ASHV). The expected effective temperatures were calculated. From these effective temperatures the designer can then decide what natural ventilation strategies are acceptable and effective. The NCEL computer program can be used with a high level of confidence to establish a particular region and a specific building design suitable for natural ventilation cooling.

## Conclusions

Field tests, wind tunnel tests, and computer simulation of buildings cooled by natural ventilation (Ref 20) show that for hot, humid climates:

- 1. The minimum required effective inlet area should not be less than 15 20% of the windward wall area (assuming the inlet area is equal to the outlet area). The effective inlet area is the actual free opening area after window dressings (screens, louvers, etc.) have been taken into consideration.
- 2. When certain architectural characteristics are used (extended eaves and end walls, elevation, etc.), the required inlet area decreases due to the increase in wind pressure.

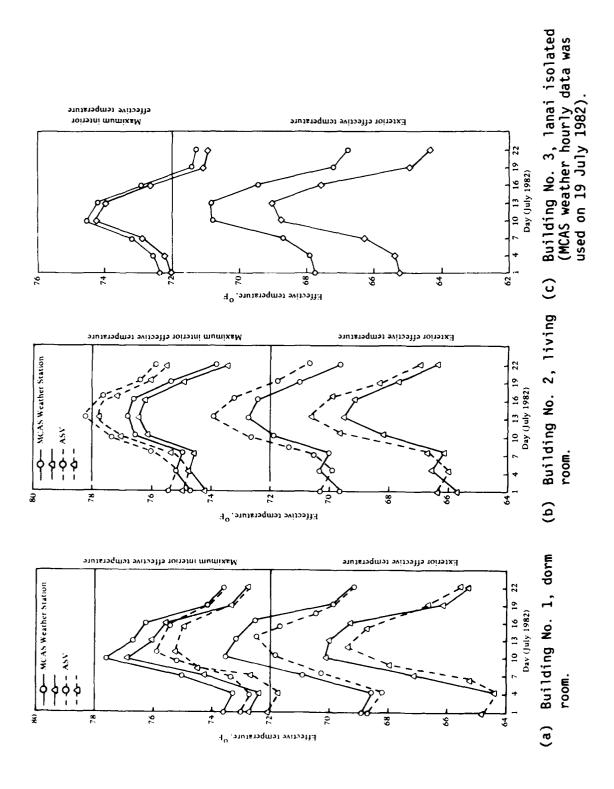


Figure 55. NCEL computer model results of exterior and interior effective temperatures for Buildings No. 1, 2, and 3.

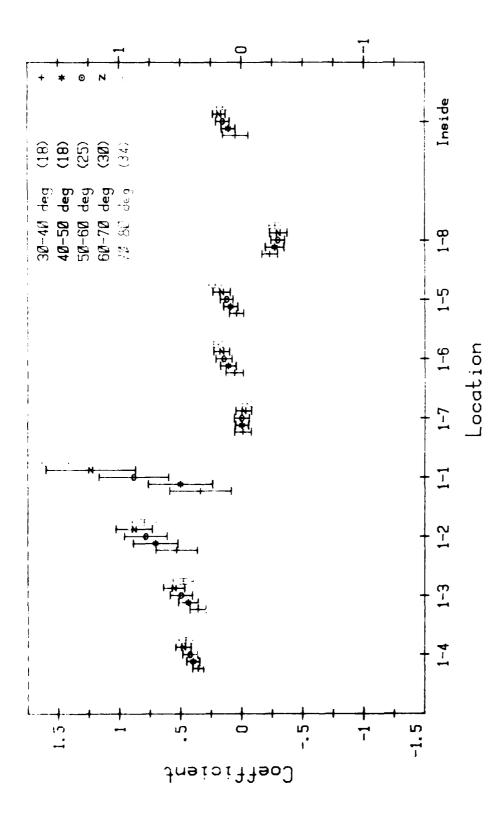
- 3. Opening and closing of windows does not affect the average pressure coefficient when the effective inlet opening area is less than 20% of the wall area. When the effective inlet area is over 40% of the windward wall area the average pressure coefficient decreases.
- 4. Assuming orifice flow, a sensitivity analysis shows that an increase or decrease of 25 to 60% of the pressure difference coefficient will cause an increase or decrease in the airflow rate into the building of 10 to 22%, assuming that the effective inlet area and wind velocity at the site remain constant.
- 5. The NCEL computer program can be used to estimate: (a) airflow rate through the building, (b) the number of air changes per hour, and (c) internal and external building environmental conditions.

#### **RECOMMENDATIONS**

The development of Figures 50 and 51 was based on existing data. Pressure coefficient data for buildings with various side ratios are limited. More wind tunnel testing of various building configurations is needed. The development of such pressure coefficient data will be valuable not only for the natural ventilation cooling of buildings, but for projects such as: air infiltration, indoor air quality, or casualty assessment in Navy shore facilities and installations in case of biological warfare.

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(a) Building No. 1, ground floor.
Average pressure coefficients for Building No. 1. Angles are relative to building north. Numbers in parenthesis are points in that angle bin. Ordinate indicators refer to taps in the main text.

Figure B-1.

# Appendix B FIELD TEST PRESSURE COEFFICIENTS DATA

$$\Delta T_{comf} = \frac{T_{s}}{Y_{t}^{*}}$$
 (A-20)

The comfort band range begins at approximately  $2^{\circ}$ C for lightly clothed, sedentary situations and increases with both the clothing level and metabolic rate (e.g., clo = 2, met = 2 implies a comfort band of  $7^{\circ}$ C or over).

As an alternative, the last two expressions can be used to rewrite the effective temperature equation in terms of the comfort temperature and comfort band:

$$T_{eff} = T_{comf} + Y_0 \Delta T_{comf}$$
 (A-21)

These same two equations can be used to eliminate all comfort coefficients terms in the standard condition from the definitions of the temperature coefficients:

$$A = T_{comf} + Y_{o} \Delta T_{comf}$$

$$B = Y_{r} \frac{\Delta T_{comf}}{T_{s}} \qquad (A-22)$$

$$C = Y_{c} \frac{\Delta T_{comf}}{T_{s}} \qquad D = Y_{e} \frac{\Delta T_{comf}}{2}$$

<u>Metabolic Rate</u>. The activity level of the body is given in units of met, m. One met is equal to the basic metabolic rate,  $M_0$ , and has a value of:

$$M_0 = 58.1 [W/m^2]$$
 (A-18)

This value incorporates a mechanical efficiency of work (i.e., the amount of body energy that is converted into useful work), which for the activities considered here is a very small effect.

#### **COMFORT TEMPERATURES**

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The effective temperature gives a corrected temperature value for the existing conditions but does not directly indicate the comfort level. However, since there is an expression that calculates the effective temperature as a function of predicted mean vote, the expression can be used to find the effective comfort temperatures. These comfort temperatures then become functions of the personal variables alone - they are independent of environmental conditions.

The optimal value of the effective temperature must occur for comfortable conditions and is given by the following expression:

$$T_{comf} = \frac{T_s}{Y_t^*} (1/2 Y_e^* - Y_o^*)$$
 (A-19)

Because both the personal and environmental parameters are variable, a comfort value alone is often insufficient; a range of acceptable temperatures is required. Even at the comfort temperature no more than 95% of individuals will report that they are comfortable. A comfort band has been defined in a range of effective temperatures where at least 90% of the individuals will report that they are comfortable:

<u>Radiative Heat Transfer Coefficient</u>. A linearized form of the radiation equations was used. This implies that the heat transfer coefficient will depend on the surface temperature of the body. However, for the normal range of environmental conditions a constant value of  $4.8 \ (\text{W/m}^{2}{}^{\circ}\text{C})$  for the coefficient can be assumed:

$$h_r = 4.8 \frac{W}{m^{20}C}$$
 (A-14)

Effective Thermal Efficiency of Clothing. The effective thermal efficiency of clothing,  $F_{\text{cle}}$ , is a measure of the effectiveness of clothing at insulating the skin surface from heat exchange:

$$F_{cle} = \frac{1 + 0.23 I_{cle}}{1 + 0.178 I_{cle} (h_c + h_r)}$$
 (A-15)

Permeation Efficiency of Clothing. The permeation efficiency,  $F_{pcl}$ , is a measure of the ability of clothing to allow the transfer of moisture from the skin surface:

$$F_{pcl} = \frac{1}{1 + 0.143 \, I_{cle} \, h_c}$$
 (A-16)

<u>Clo Value</u>. The insulation value of clothing is given in units of clo. One clo is equal to 0.155 ( $\rm m^{2}{}^{\rm o}{}^{\rm c}{}^{\rm c}{}^{\rm c}{}^{\rm o}{}^{\rm c}{}^{\rm o}{}^{\rm c}{}^{\rm o}{}^{\rm c}{}^{\rm o}{}^{\rm c}{}^{\rm o}{}^{\rm c}{}^{\rm o}{}^{\rm o}{}^{\rm c}{}^{\rm o}{}^{\rm o}{}^{\rm c}{}^{\rm o}{}^{\rm o}{}^{\rm o}{}^{\rm c}{}^{\rm o}{}^{\rm o}{}$ 

$$I_{cl} = 1.16 I_{cle} \tag{A-17}$$

# Basic comfort coefficient,

$$Y_0 = [0.42 + 0.58 \text{ m}] \times [1.6 + 17.6 \text{ e}^{-2.1 \text{ m}}] - Y_r - Y_c - Y_e$$
(A-10)

For convenience the total comfort coefficient is defined as follows:

$$Y_{t} = Y_{r} + Y_{c} + Y_{e} \tag{A-11}$$

The standard comfort coefficients  $(Y_X^*)$  are calculated using the same formulas as the comfort coefficients versions, except that the low airspeed value of the convection coefficient is used.

#### **Basic Definitions**

The equations below are useful definitions that are required for the previous set of equations.

Skin Temperature. In the comfort range the skin temperature,  $T_s$ , is only a function of the activity level, m.

$$T_s = 35.7 - 2.16 \text{ m}$$
 (A-12)

<u>Convective Heat Transfer Coefficient</u>. The convective heat transfer coefficient,  $h_{\rm C}$ , can either be dominated by airspeed or by thermal buoyancy. The larger of the two values for  $h_{\rm C}$  should be used.

$$h_c = 8.3 v^{0.53}$$
 $h_c = 5.66 (m - 0.85)^{0.39}$ 
(A-13)

Note that very similar forms for the wind-dominated convection coefficient have been found by others (Ref 13 and 14).

#### EFFECTIVE TEMPERATURE

The following simple expression was used for the effective temperature as a function of the environmental variables:

$$T_{eff} = A + B T_r + C T_a + D T_d^2$$
 (A-5)

whose constants are a function of airspeed and the personal variables.

The temperature coefficients used above are defined as follows:

$$A = \frac{T_s}{Y_t^*} (1/2 Y_e^* + Y_o - Y_o^*)$$

$$B = \frac{Y_r}{Y_t^*}$$

$$C = \frac{Y_c}{Y_t^*}$$

$$D = \frac{1}{T_s} \frac{Y_e}{Y_t^*}$$
(A-6)

# Comfort Coefficients

The comfort coefficients,  $(Y_X)$ , (as used in this paper) are defined as follows:

#### Radiative comfort coefficient,

$$Y_r = \left[ F_{cle} \frac{h_r T_s}{M_o} \right] \times \left[ 1.6 + 17.6 e^{-2.1 m} \right]$$
 (A-7)

#### Convective comfort coefficient,

$$Y_c = \left[0.0014 \text{ T}_s \text{ m} + F_{cle} \frac{h_c \text{ T}_s}{M_o}\right] \times \left[1.6 + 17.6 \text{ e}^{-2.1 \text{ m}}\right]$$
 (A-8)

# Evaporative comfort coefficient.

$$Y_e = \left[0.0024 \text{ f}_s \text{ m} + .132 \text{ F}_{pc1} \frac{h_c \text{ T}_s}{M_o}\right] \times \left[1.6 + 17.6 \text{ e}^{-2.1 \text{ m}}\right]$$
.......(A-9)

## Appendix A

#### **DEFINITION OF EFFECTIVE TEMPERATURE**

Definitions involved in calculating the effective temperature are stated below. In order to define effective or comfort temperatures a set of standard conditions\* must be defined to which the actual conditions must be corrected. The asterisk in the equations indicate that the quantity is in the standard condition and is defined as follows:

## zero airspeed,

$$v^* = 0 \tag{A-1}$$

air temperature is equal to the effective temperature,

$$T_a^* = T_{eff}$$
 (A-2)

mean radiant temperature is equal to the effective temperature,

$$T_{r}^{*} = T_{eff} \tag{A-3}$$

standardized dew point

$$(T_d^*)^2 = T_s \left(T_{eff} - \frac{T_s}{2}\right)$$
 (A-4)

This definition leads to approximately 50% ( $\pm 5\%$ ) relative humidity for the normal range of indoor temperatures and activity levels.

<sup>\*</sup>A standard value for the clothing and metabolic values was not assumed and, therefore, comfort coefficients will depend on the actual values of the personal variables.

 $\Delta P$  = pressure drop across the window, Pa

 $\Delta T_{comf}$  = comfort band

 $\rho$  = density of air, 1.2 kg/m<sup>3</sup>

```
Td
          = dew point temperature, °C
Teff
          = effective temperature, °C
Tr
          = mean radiant temperature, °C
Ţ
          = skin temperature
          = gradient wind velocity in the free stream
UR
          = windspeed at site at roof level, m/s
Ūz
          = mean wind velocity at height z
          = zero airspeed
          = mean internal airspeed, m/s
          = orifice velocity, m/s
          = positive/negative orifice velocity, m/s
V<sub>+/-</sub>
X
          = ratio of window area to wall area
Y
          = convective comfort coefficient
          = evaporative comfort coefficient
          = basic comfort coefficient
          = radiative comfort coefficients
Y
          = total comfort coefficient
Yx
          = comfort coefficients
          = standard comfort coefficients
          = height
          = wind incidence angle measured from short side of model
Œ
δ
          = boundary layer thickness
ΔČ
          = nondimensional average pressure difference coefficient
            between opposite walls of building
          = estimated pressure difference coefficient
          = average pressure difference coefficient between opposite
            sides of building
```

#### LIST OF SYMBOLS

```
= effective inlet area, m<sup>2</sup>
            = effective leakage area, m<sup>2</sup>
            = power law exponent
c^{\mathbf{D}}
           = nondimensional discharge coefficient, usually 0.6
               average pressure coefficient for each side, example:
Ċ,
              average pressure coefficient
           = unit insulation value of clothing, one clo = 0.155 \, (M^{2o}C/W) or (.088 hr ft<sup>2</sup>/Btu)
clo
F<sub>cle</sub>
           = effective thermal efficiency of clothing
           = permeation efficiency of clothing
FDC1
           = convective heat transfer coefficient, W/m<sup>2</sup>°C
hc
           = radiative heat transfer coefficient, W/m<sup>2</sup>°C
h
I
           = turbulence intensity
Icl
           = basic clo value
Icle
           = effective clo value
i,J
           = subscripts indicating sides of model
           = basic metabolic rate
           = unit of activity level of the body, met
           = pressure at location on the building
           = local static pressure
           = airflow rate, M^3/hr
           = infiltration/exfiltration, M<sup>3</sup>/s
Q+/-
           = ambient air temperature, °C
Ta
\mathbf{T}_{\mathrm{comf}}
           = comfort temperature
```

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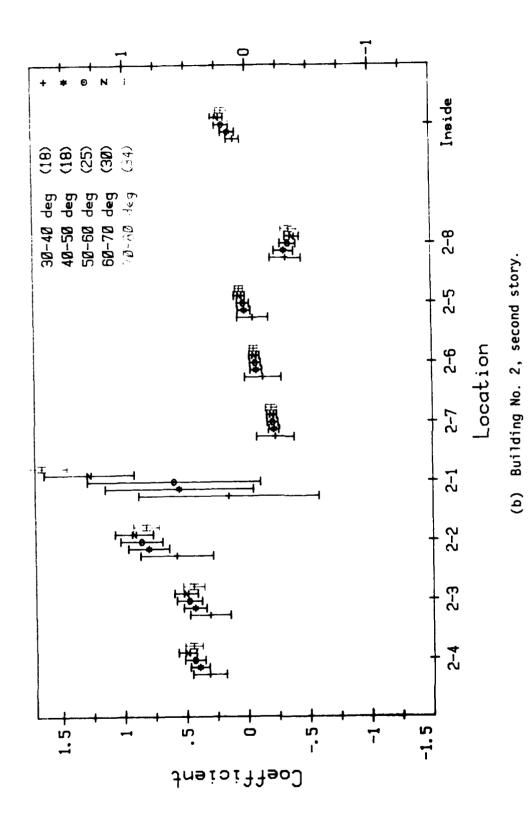
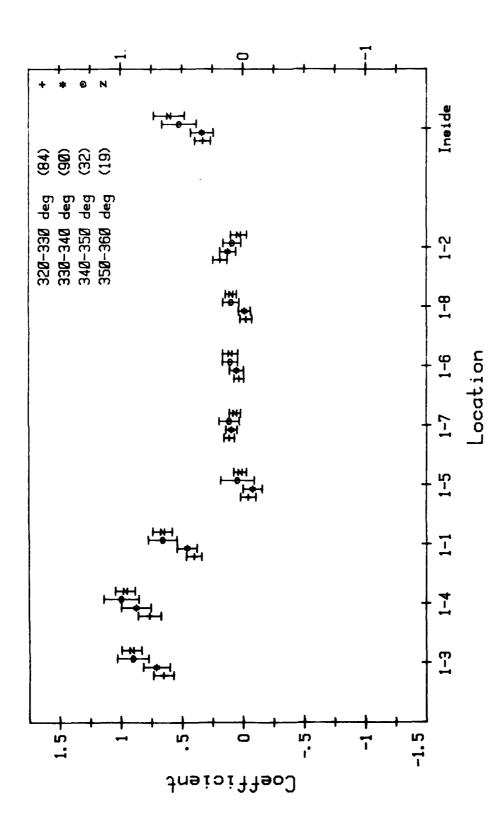
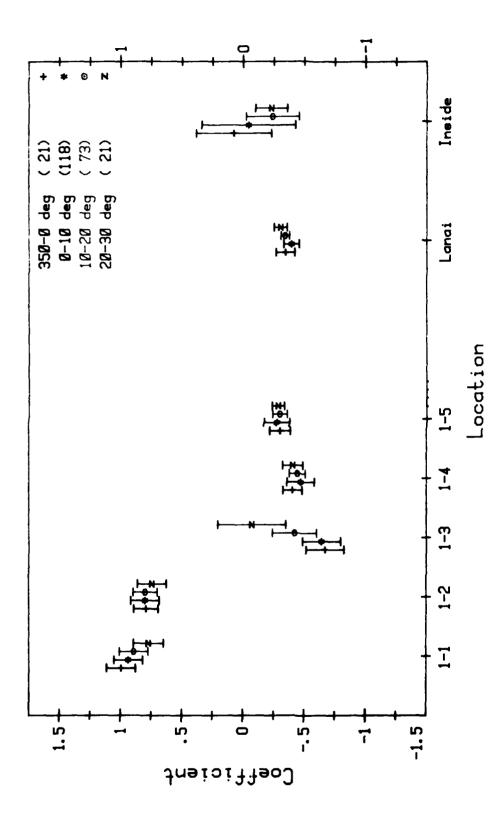


Figure B-1. Continued.

B-3



Average pressure coefficients for Building No. 2 (singlestory). Angles are relative to building north. Numbers Ordinate in parenthesis are points in that angle bin. indicators refer to taps in the main text. Figure B-2.



Average pressure coefficients for Building No. 3. Angles are relative to building north. Numbers in parenthesis are points in that angle bin. Ordinate indicators refer to taps in the main text. Figure B-3.

(a) Building No. 3, east apartment.

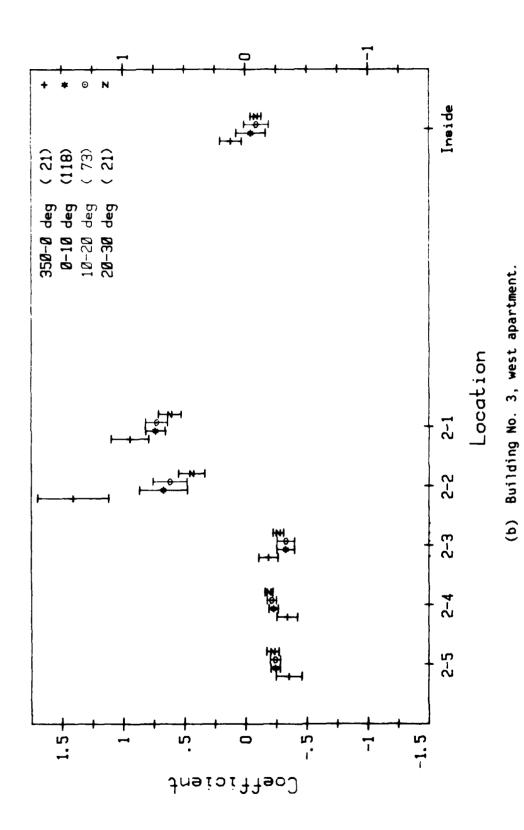


Figure B-3. Continued.

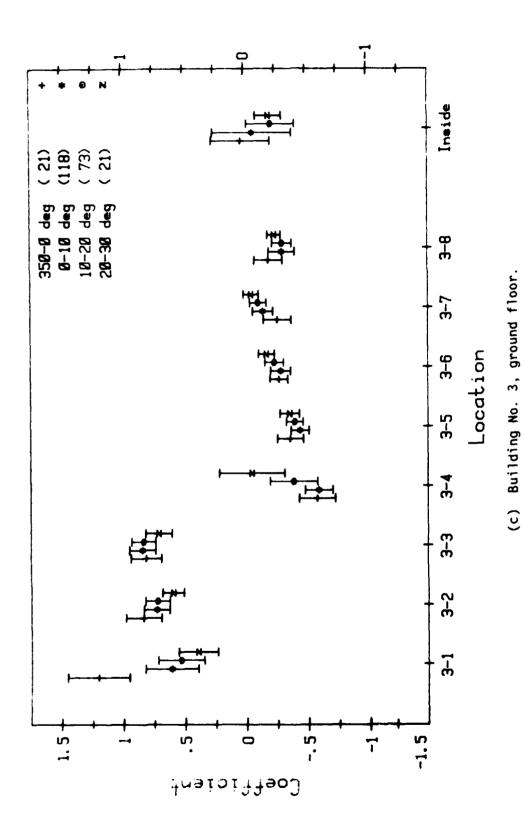
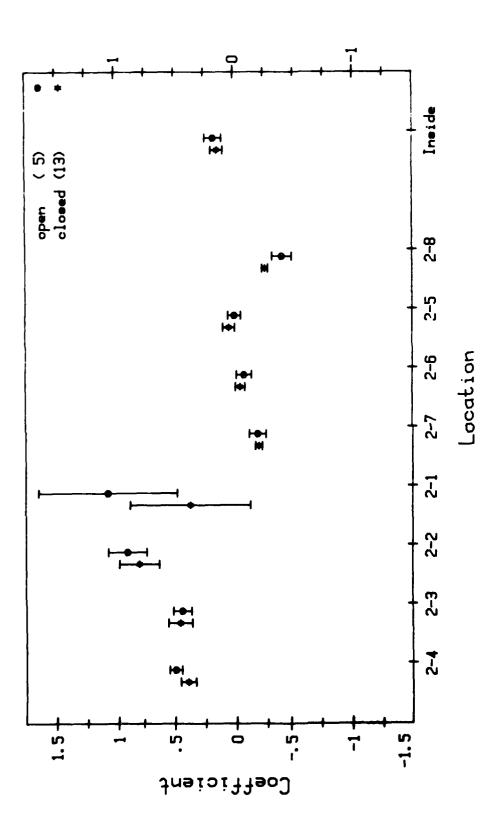


Figure 8-3. Continued.



Numbers in parenthesis are points Ordinate indicators refer to taps in The effect on Building No. 1 (second story) pressure coefficients due to open windows. Angles are relative (a) Building No. 1, second story, 40-50 degrees. to building north. in that angle bin. the main text. Figure B-4.

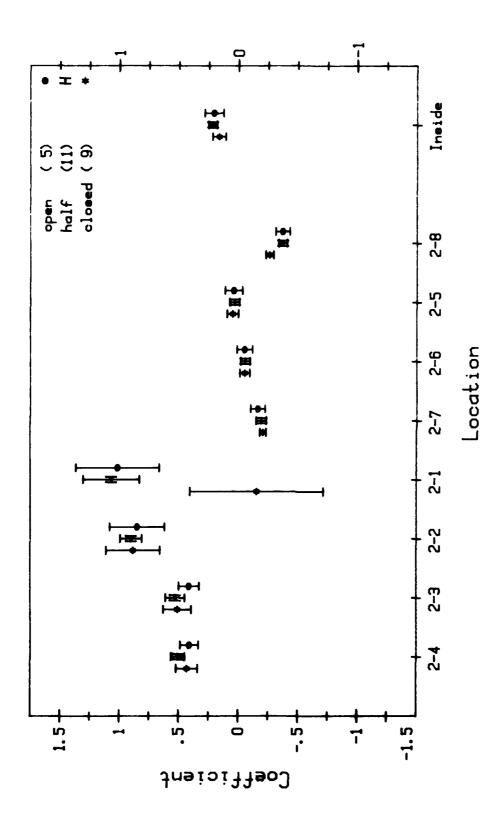


Figure B-4. Continued.

(b) Building No. 1, second story, 50-60 degrees.

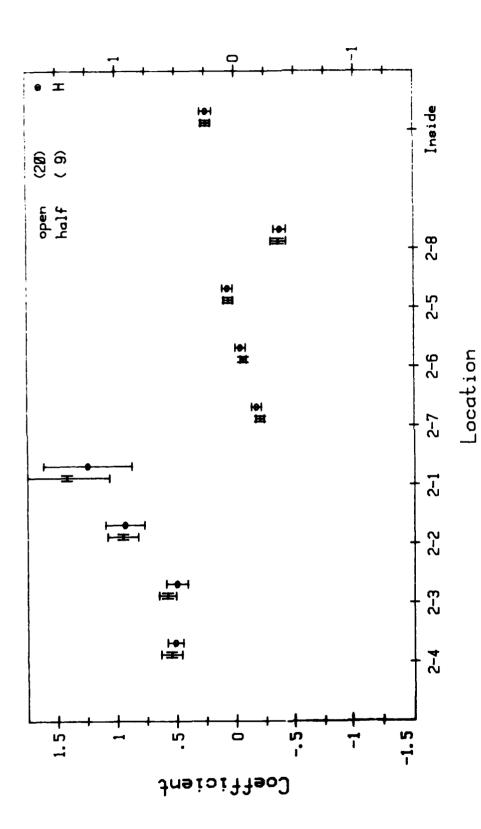
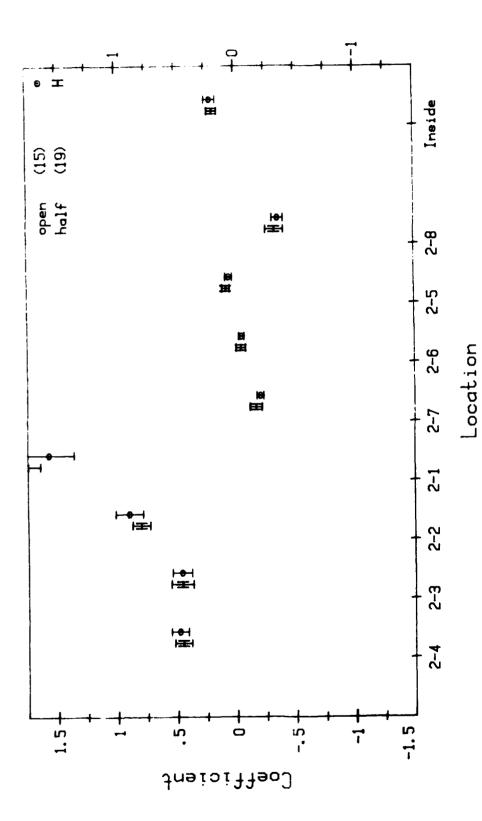


Figure B-4. Continued.

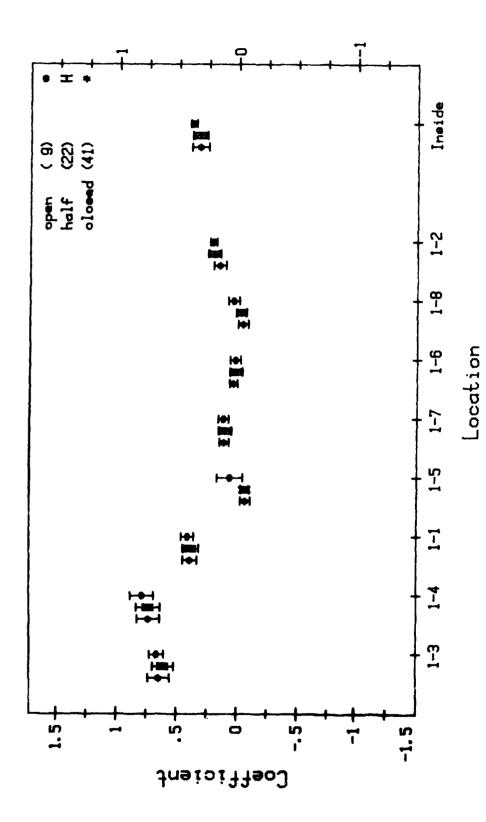
(c) Building No. 1, second story, 60-70 degrees.



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Figure B-4. Continued.

(d) Building No. 1, second story, 70-80 degrees.



(a) Building No. 2, 320-330 degrees.

The effect on Building No. 2 pressure coefficient due to open windows. Angles are relative to building north. Number in parenthesis are points in that angle bin. Ordinate indicators refer to taps in the main text. Figure B-5.

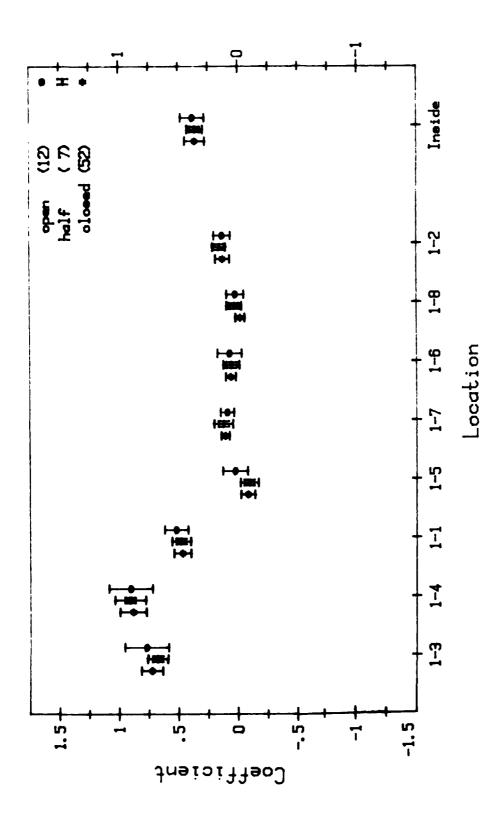


Figure B-5. Continued.

(b) Building No. 2, 330-340 degrees.

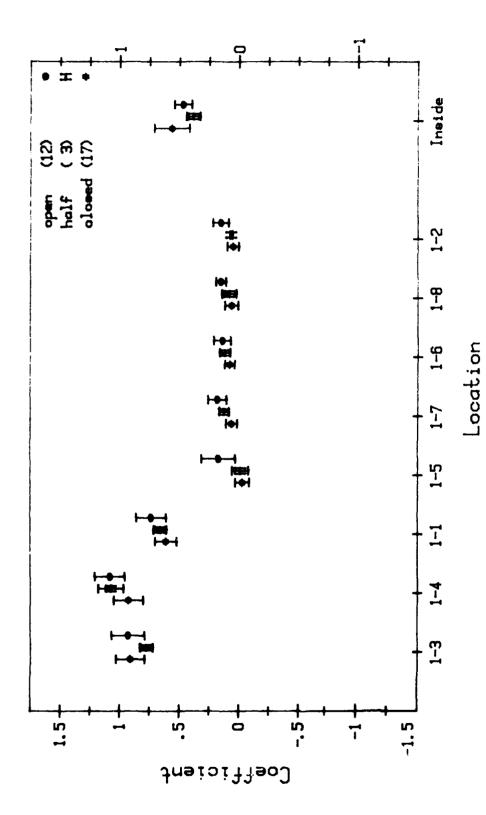


Figure 8-5. Continued.

(c) Building No. 2, 340-350 degrees.

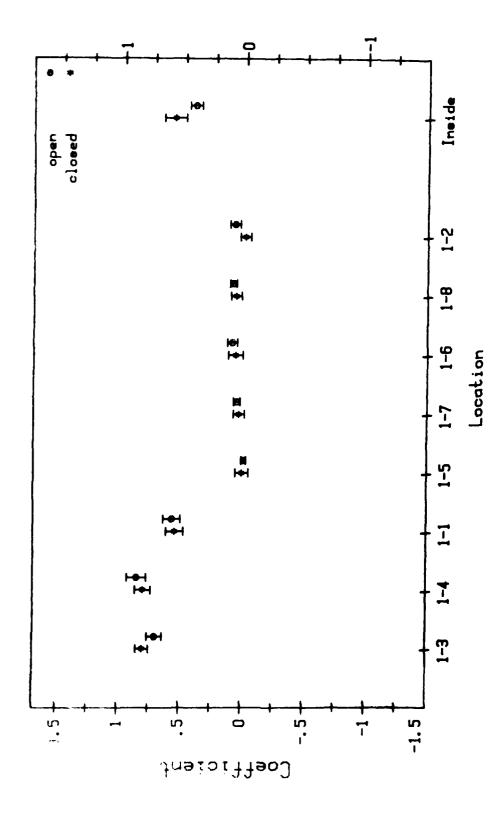
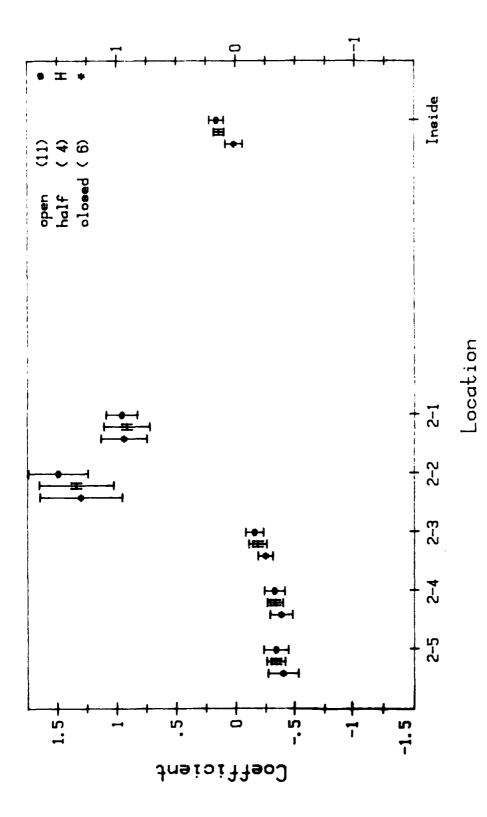


Figure B-5. Continued.

(d) Building No. 2, 350-0 degrees.



(a) Building No. 3, west apartment, 350-360 degrees.

The effect con the west apartment of Building No. 3 pressure coefficients due to open windows. Angles are relative to building north. Numbers in parenthesis are points in that angle bin. Ordinate indicators refer to taps in main text. Figure B-6.

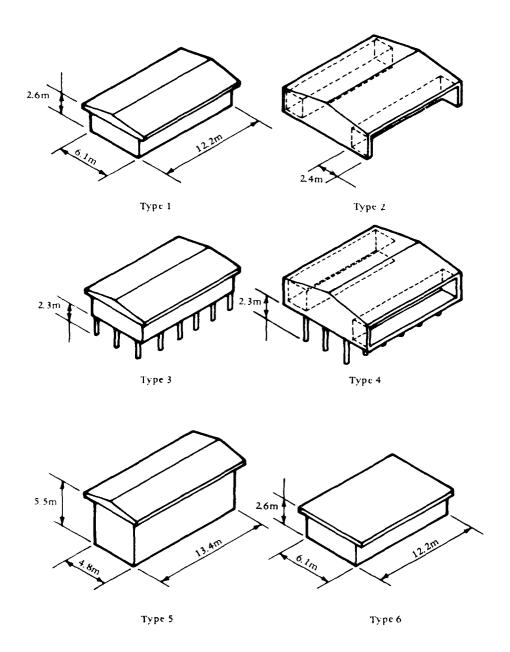


Figure C-1. Wind directions on buildings.

# Appendix C

PRESSURE COEFFICIENTS FOR RESIDENTIAL HOUSING AND COMMERCIAL BUILDINGS (Ref 17 and 18)

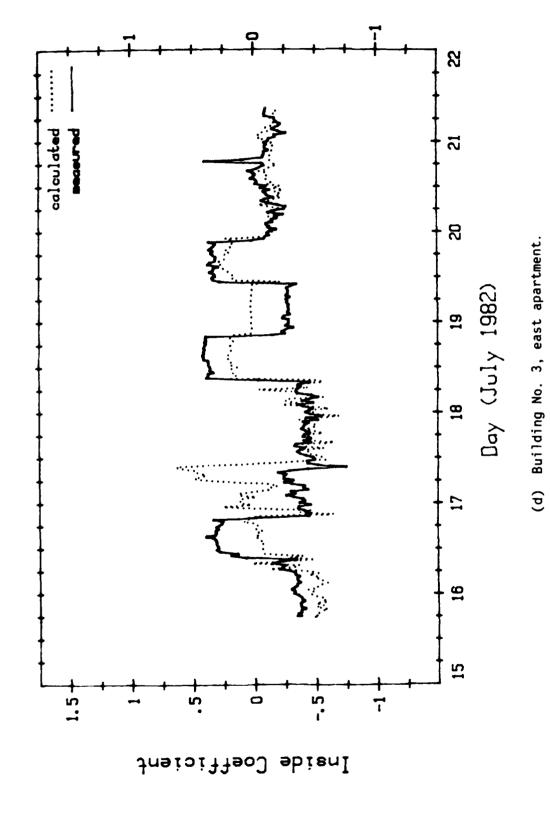


Figure B-9. Continued.

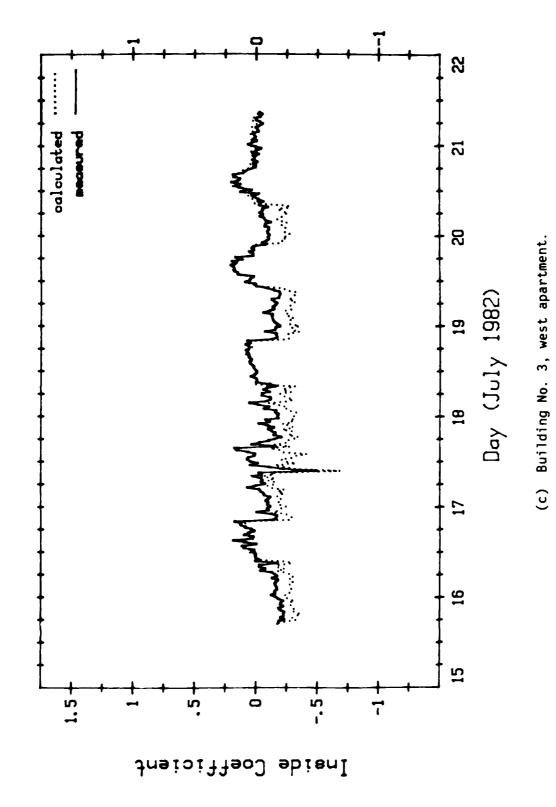


Figure B-9. Continued.

B-27

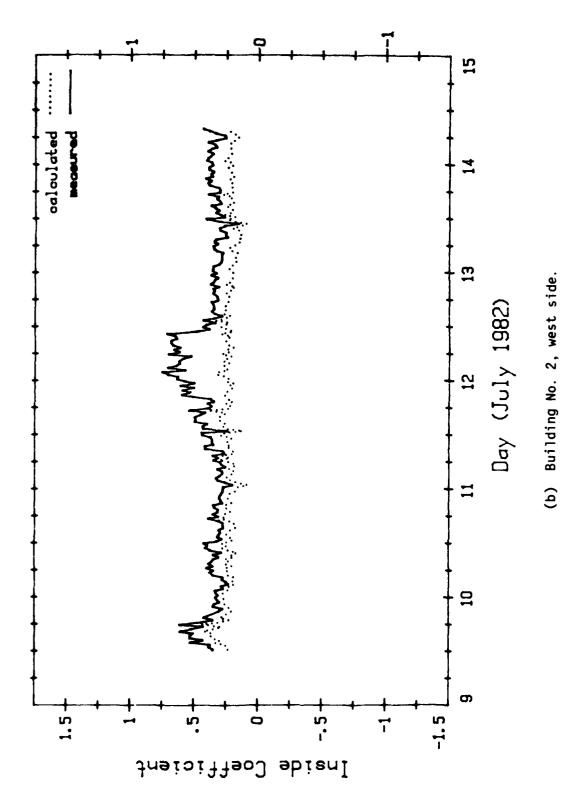
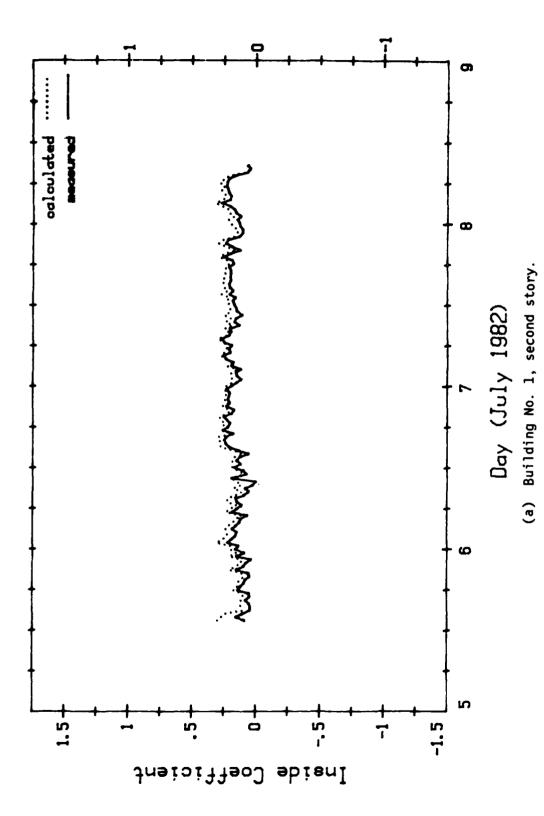
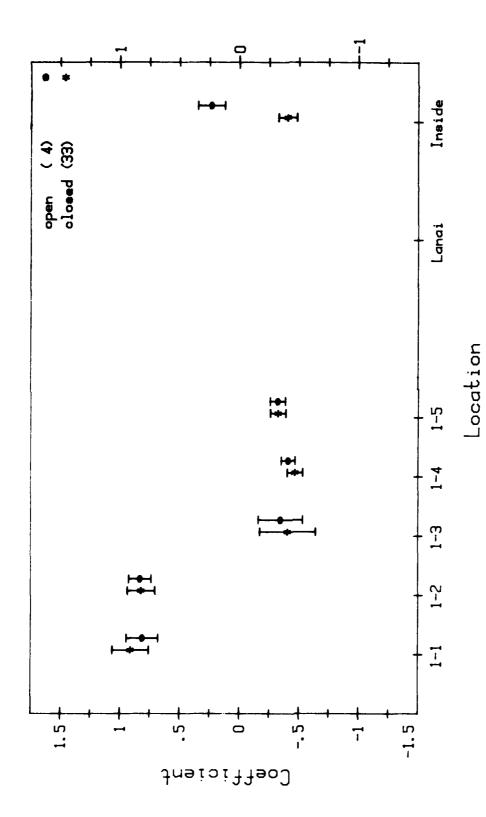


Figure B-9. Continued.

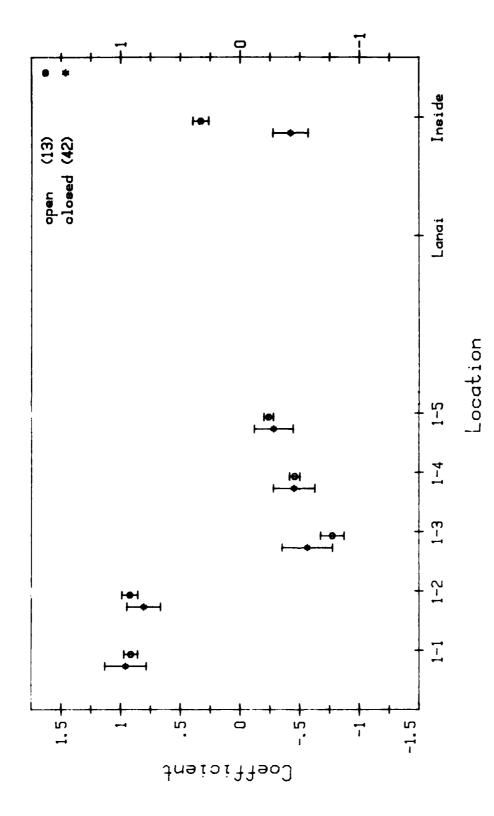


Time series data for both measured and calculated internal pressure coefficients. Figure B-9.



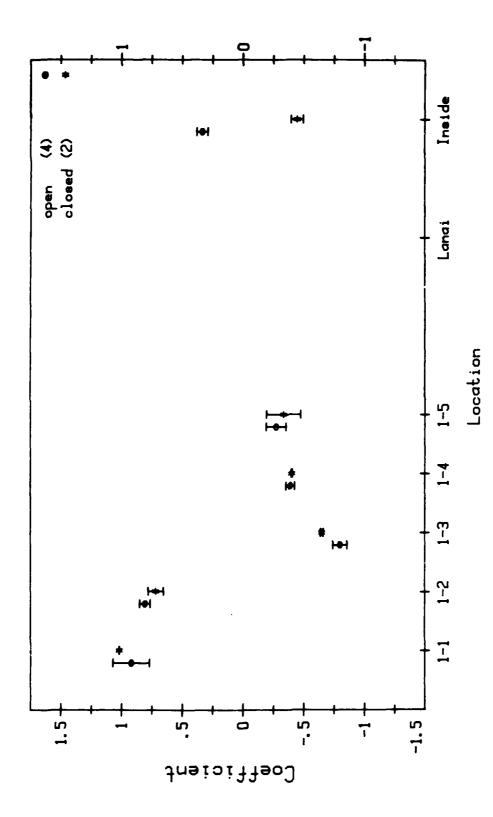
(c) Building No. 3, east apartment (lanai opened) 10-20 degrees.

Figure B-8. Continued.

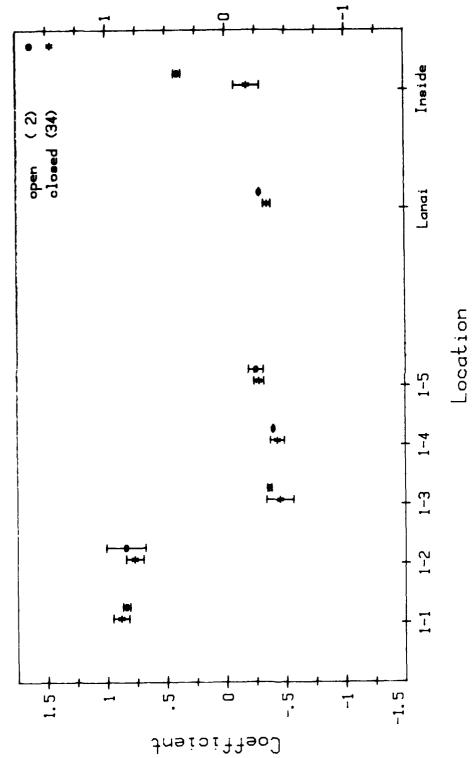


(b) Building No. 3, east apartment (lanai opened) 0-10 degrees. Figure B-8. Continued.

B-23

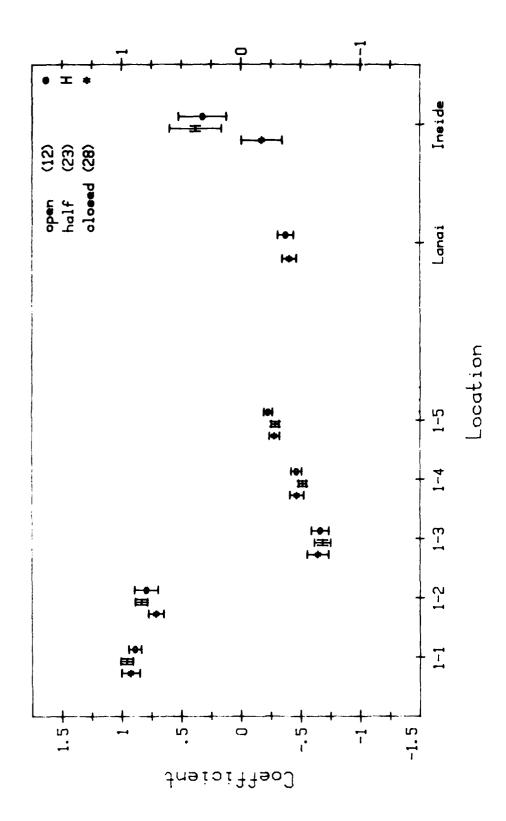


Ordinate indicators refer to The effect on the east apartment of Building No. 3 pressure Angles Numbers in parenthesis (a) Building No. 3, east apartment (lanai opened) 350-0 degrees. coefficients due to open windows (lanai opened). are relative to building north. are points in that angle bin. taps in main text. Figure B-8.



(c) Building No. 3, east apartment (lanai isolated) 10-20 degrees.

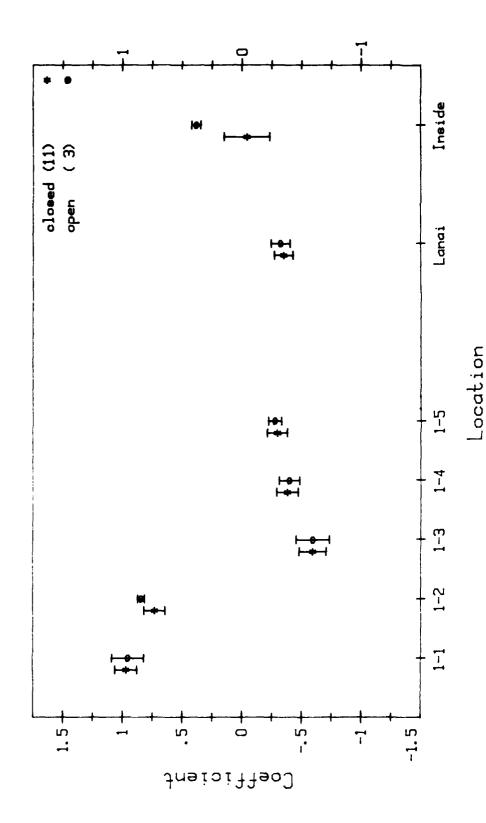
Figure B-7. Continued.



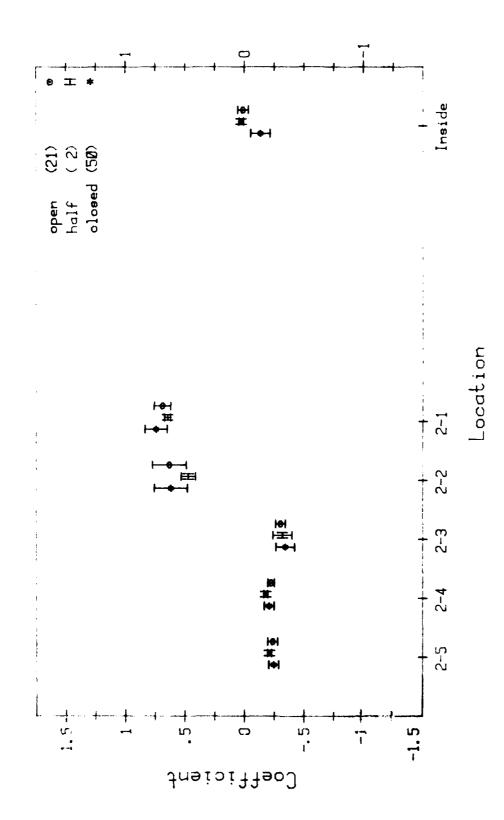
(b) Building No. 3, east apartment (lanai isolated) 0-10 degrees.

Figure 8-7. Continued.

B-20



The effect of the east apartment of Building No. 3 pressure coefficients due to open windows (lanai isolated). Angles are relative to building north. Numbers in parenthesis are points in that angle bin. Ordinate indicators (a) Building No. 3, east apartment (lanai isolated) 350-360 degrees. refer to taps in main text. Figure 8-7.



(c) Building No. 3, west apartment, 10-20 degrees.

Figure B-6. Continued.

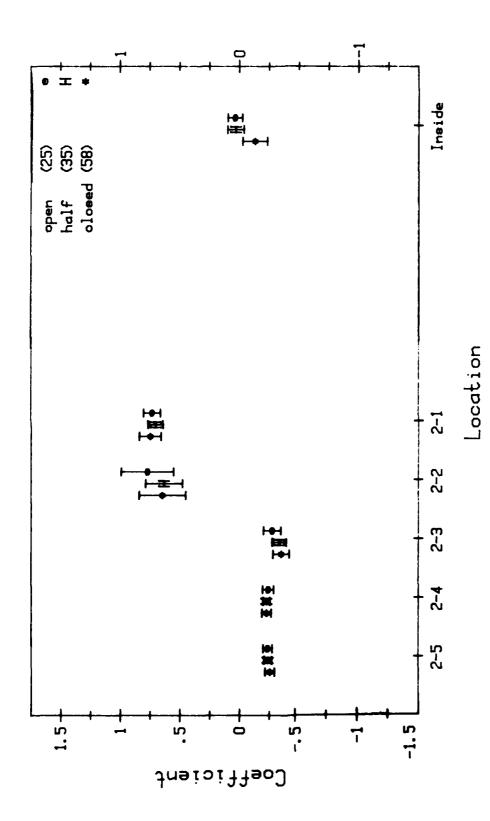


Figure B-6. Continued.

(b) Building No. 3, west apartment 0-10 degrees.

Table C-1. Summary of Wind Pressure Difference Characteristics at Mid-Height of Walls on Six Types of Isolated Models at Wind Incidences, Normal, 30 Degrees and 45 Degrees to Long Walls.

		<del></del>			·	,— <del>-</del> —-
Model Features	Model Type	Overall Rankine Based on Average Pressure Diff. Coefft, Between Long Walls	Incidence to Long Wall (degrees)	Average Pressure Diff. Goefit, Between Long Walls	Maximum Pressure Diff. Coefft, Between Opposite Points on Long Walls	Minimum Pressure Diff. Coefft, Between Opposite Points on Long Walls
Single story on-grade	1	Worst	0 30 45	0.49 0.41 0.34	0.56 C 0.67 WE 0.71 WE	0.42 BE 0.10 LE -0.02 LE
Average 0.41						
Single story on-grade with extended eaves and end walls	2	2nd Best	0 30 45	0.51 0.66 0.58	0.56 C 0.71 WE 0.63 C	0.46 BE 0.58 LE 0.52 C
Average				0.58	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
Single story elevated above ground	3	3rd Best	0 30 45	0.65 0.58 0.43	0.71 C 0.79 WE 0.81 WE	0.60 BE 0.33 LE 0.00 LE
Average 0.55						
Single story elevated above ground with extended verandas and end walls	4	Best	0 30 45	0.81 0.67 0.75	0.85 BE 0.75 LE 0.81 LE	0.77 C 0.50 WE 0.73 BE
Average				0.74		
Two story	5	5th Best	0 30 45	0.61 0.33 0.31	0.6 C 0.37 C 0.42 C	0.52 BE 0.24 WE 0.12 LE
Average				0.42		
Single story on-grade with flat roof	6	4th Best	0 30 45	0.51 0.42 0.35	0.58 C 0.69 WE 0.71 WE	0.44 BE 0.08 LE 0.00 LE
Average				0.43		

C = center one-third of long walls; BE = both ends of long walls; WE = windward ends of long walls; LE = leeward ends of long walls

Table C-2. Wind at 45 Degrees Incidence to a Long Wall.

Model Features	Average Pressure Differential Coefficient Between Mid-Height of Long Walls for Wind at 45 degrees Incidence to a Long Wall (Refer- ence Pressure - Dynamic 10 Meters Above Ground in Wooded Suburban Terrain)			
Single story elevated above ground with extended eaves and end walls (Type 4)	0.75			
Single story on-grade with extended eaves and end walls (Type 2)	0.58			
Single story elevated above ground (Type 3)	0.43			
Single story on-grade with flat roof (Type 6)	0.35			
Single story on-grade with 10 degree pitch roof (Type 1)	0.34			
Two story (Type 5)	0.31			

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Note that the three highest ranking model types, 4, 2 and 3, at 45 degrees incidence were also highest ranking averaged over wind incidences of 0 degrees, 30 degrees and 45 degrees.

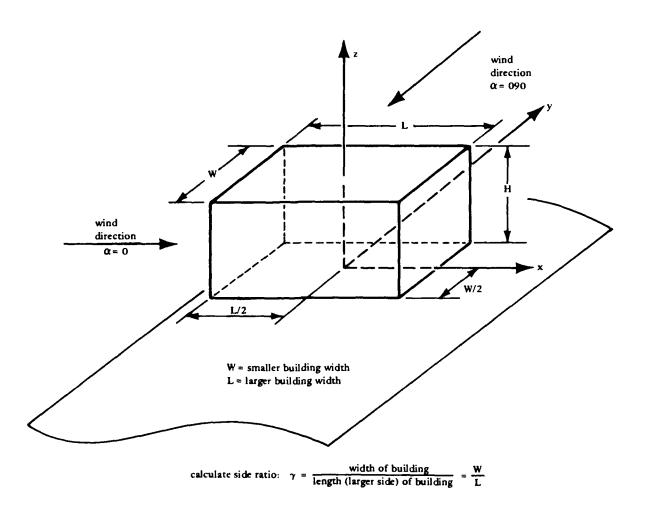


Figure C-2. Averaged pressure coefficients based on a reference velocity measured at the roof,  $\bar{c}_p$ , for a side ration of 1.0.

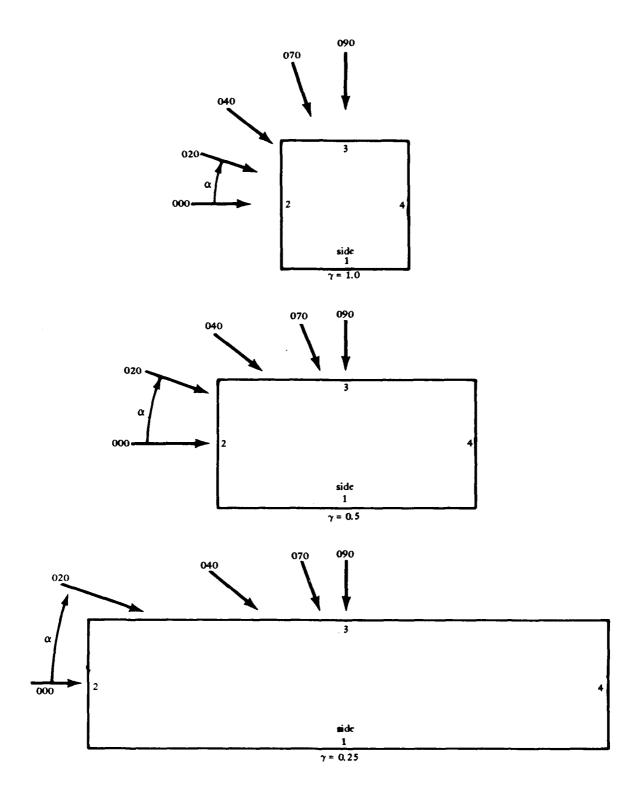


Figure C-3. Averaged pressure coefficients based on a reference velocity measured at the roof,  $\tilde{C}_p$ , for a side ration of 0.5.

Graphs: Pressure coefficients for buildings three stories height or less with a single value reference speed,  $U_r$ , at building roof height,  $\Delta \widetilde{C}_p = \widetilde{C}_{p_3}$  ( $\widetilde{C}_{p_1} = 0$ ).

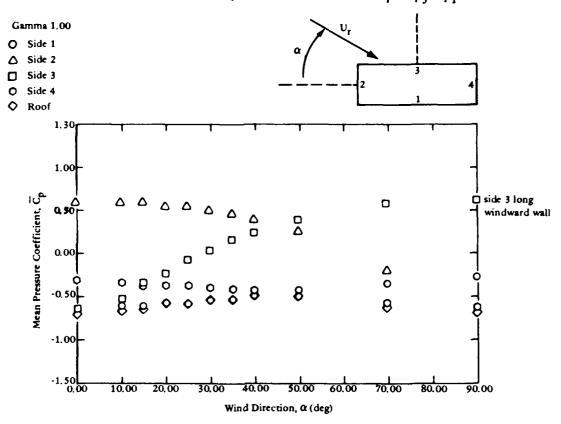


Figure C-4. Averaged pressure coefficients based on a reference velocity measured at the roof,  $\bar{c}_p$ , for a side ratio of 0.25.

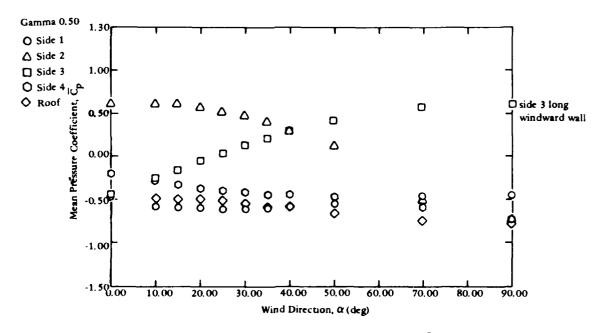


Figure C-5. Averaged local pressure coefficients,  $\bar{c}_p$ , for a side ratio of 1.0.

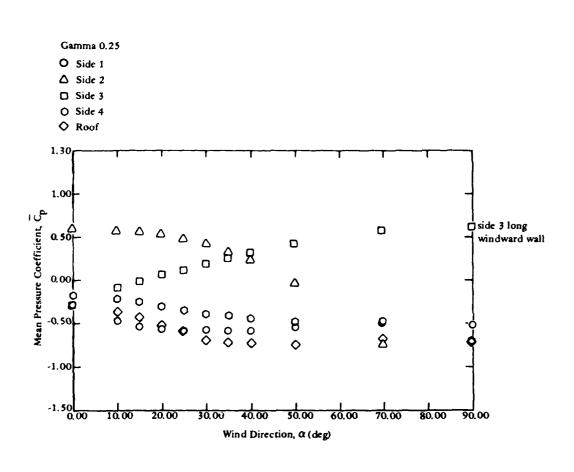
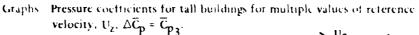


Figure C-6. Averaged local pressure coefficients,  $\bar{c}_p$ , for a side ratio of 0.5.



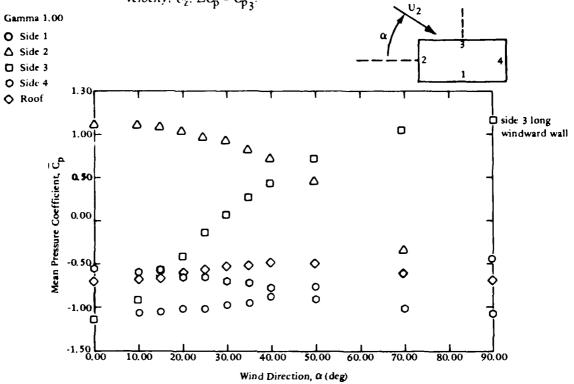


Figure C-7. Averaged local pressure coefficients,  $\bar{c}_p$ , for a side ratio of 0.25.

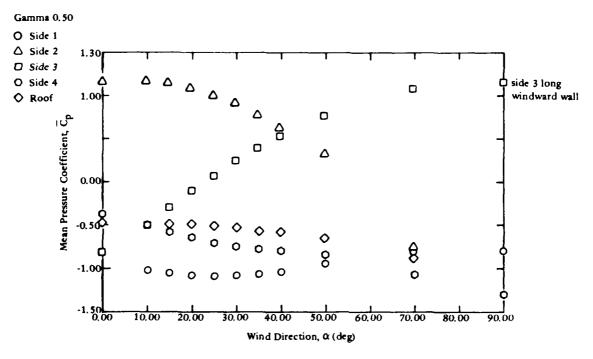


Figure C-8. Solid model types used in mid-wall height pressure distribution studies.

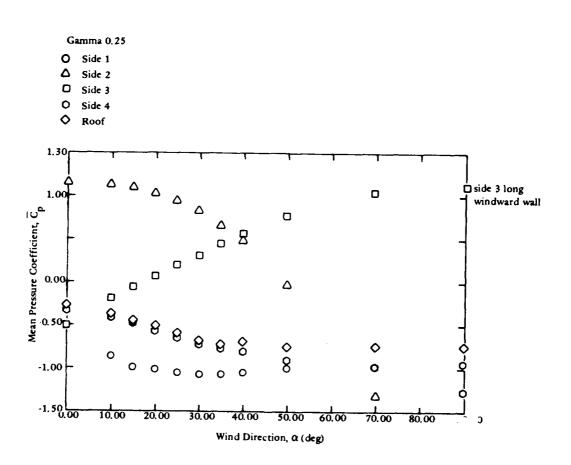


Figure C-9. Coordinate system of building.

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83 Table of Contents & Index to TDS

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